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PREFATORY NOTE.

THE Editor of the ANNUAL REGISTER thinks it necessary to state that in no case does he claim to offer original reports of speeches in Parliament or elsewhere. It is his duty, as well as his pleasure, to acknowledge his great indebtedness to *The Times*, for the special permission afforded him to make use of its Parliamentary reports and other matter ; and he hereby expresses his thanks to that journal for the valuable assistance which he has derived from the facilities thus extended to him.

In the present number, the ANNUAL REGISTER resumes its ancient habit of printing *in extenso* various documents of public importance published during the year. For the year 1915 the most important documents were the despatches received from the Admirals and Commanders in the Field, describing the larger operations which took place during the year. It is hoped that these may assist to elucidate the special account given of the main events which have occurred in the various theatres of war.

Special attention has also been given to the Retrospect of the Year's Literature ; and in future it is proposed in each year to give an account of about fifty of the most important and characteristic books published during the period under review.

In conclusion, the Editor may perhaps be permitted to mention the singular difficulties experienced in the collection and sorting of news from all parts of the world. In most of the neutral countries, as well as in all the belligerent countries, political and social progress has come to a standstill. The attention of all nations is riveted on the

momentous events occurring in Europe. The final outcome of those events is fraught with far greater consequences, even to the peoples farthest removed from them, than any of the lesser questions of internal order and progress, which would have formed the main topics of public interest in normal times.

THE MINISTRY, 1915.

THE CABINET.

| | (At the beginning of year.) | (From June.) |
|--|------------------------------------|--|
| <i>Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury</i> . . . | H. H. Asquith, K.C. | <i>No change.</i> |
| <i>Lord Chancellor</i> . . . | Viscount Haldane, K.T. | Lord Buckmaster (L.). |
| <i>President of the Council</i> . . . | Earl Beauchamp, K.G. | Marquess of Crewe, K.G. (L.). |
| <i>Lord Privy Seal</i> . . . | Marquess of Crewe, K.G. | Earl Curzon of Kedleston, G.C.S.I. (U.). |
| <i>First Lord of the Admiralty</i> . . . | Winston S. Churchill. | A. J. Balfour (U.). |
| <i>Secretaries of State:—</i> | | |
| <i>Home Affairs</i> . . . | Reginald McKenna, K.C. | Sir John Simon, K.C., K.C.V.O. (L.). |
| <i>Foreign Affairs</i> . . . | Sir Edward Grey, K.G., Bart. | <i>No change.</i> |
| <i>Colonies</i> . . . | Lewis Harcourt. | A. Bonar Law (U.). |
| <i>War</i> . . . | Earl Kitchener of Khartoum, K.P. | <i>No change.</i> |
| <i>India</i> . . . | Marquess of Crewe, K.G. | Austen Chamberlain (U.). |
| <i>Chancellor of the Exchequer</i> . . . | D. Lloyd George. | Reginald McKenna (L.). |
| <i>Secretary for Scotland</i> . . . | T. McKinnon Wood. | <i>No change.</i> |
| <i>Chief Secretary for Ireland</i> . . . | Augustine Birrell, K.C. | <i>No change.</i> |
| <i>Postmaster-General</i> . . . | C. E. H. Hobhouse. | Herbert Samuel (L.) (not in Cabinet). |
| <i>President of the Board of Trade</i> . . . | Walter Runciman. | <i>No change.</i> |
| <i>President of the Local Government Board</i> . . . | Herbert Samuel. | Walter Long (U.). |
| <i>President of the Board of Education</i> . . . | J. A. Pease. | Arthur Henderson (Lab.). |
| <i>Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster</i> . . . | C. F. G. Masterman (to Feb. 1). | { Winston S. Churchill (L.) (resigned Nov.). |
| <i>First Commissioner of Works</i> . . . | Hon. E. S. Montagu. | { Herbert Samuel (L.). |
| <i>Attorney-General</i> . . . | Lord Emmott, G.C.M.G. | Lewis Harcourt (L.). |
| | Sir John Simon, K.C., K.C.V.O. | { Sir Edward Carson, K.C. (U.) (resigned Oct.). |
| <i>Minister of Munitions</i> . . . | — | { Sir Frederick E. Smith, K.C. (U.). |
| <i>Minister without Portfolio</i> . . . | — | D. Lloyd George (L.). |
| | | Marquess of Lansdowne, K.G. (U.). |

OUTSIDE THE CABINET.

| | | |
|---|---------------------------|--|
| <i>Board of Agriculture</i> . . . | Lord Lucas. | Earl of Selborne, K.G. (U.) (in the Cabinet). |
| <i>Civil Lord of the Admiralty</i> . . . | George Lambert. | Duke of Devonshire, G.C.V.O. (U.). |
| <i>Parliamentary and Financial Secretary of the Admiralty</i> . . . | T. J. Macnamara. | <i>No change.</i> |
| <i>Financial Secretary, War Office</i> . . . | H. T. Baker. | H. W. Forster (U.). |
| <i>Parl. Under-Secretaries:—</i> | | |
| <i>Home Office</i> . . . | E. J. Griffith. | William Brace (Lab.). |
| <i>Foreign Office</i> . . . | F. Dyke Acland (to Feb.). | Lord Robert Cecil, K.C. (U.). |
| <i>War Office</i> . . . | Hon. Neil Primrose. | <i>No change.</i> |
| | H. J. Tennant. | |

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|--|
| <i>Colonial Office</i> . . . | Lord Islington, G.C.M.G. | A. H. D. Ramsey Steel-Maitland (U.). |
| <i>India Office</i> . . . | C. H. Roberts. | Lord Islington, G.C.M.G. (L.). |
| <i>Board of Trade</i> . . . | J. M. Robertson. | E. G. Pretyman (U.). |
| <i>Local Government Board</i> . . . | J. H. Lewis. | W. Hayes Fisher (U.). |
| <i>Board of Education</i> . . . | C. Addison, M.D. | J. H. Lewis (L.). |
| <i>Board of Agriculture</i> . . . | Sir Harry C. Verney, Bart. | Francis Dyke Acland (L.). |
| <i>Treasury :—</i> | | |
| <i>Junior Lords</i> . . . | J. W. Gulland. W. Wedgwood Benn. W. Jones. H. Webb. | G. H. Roberts (Lab.). Hon. Geoffrey Howard (L.). W. Clive Bridgeman (U.). Walter Rea (L.). |
| <i>Financial Secretary</i> . . . | Hon. E. S. Montagu (to Feb. 4). Francis Dyke Acland. | Hon. E. S. Montagu (L.). |
| <i>Parliamentary Secretary</i> | P. H. Illingworth (died in Jan.). John W. Gulland. | Joint : John W. Gulland (L.). Lord Edmund Talbot (U.). |
| <i>Paymaster-General</i> . . . | Lord Strachie. | Lord Newton (U.). |
| <i>Solicitor-General</i> . . . | Sir Stanley Buckmaster, K.C. | Sir Frederick E. Smith, K.C. (U.) (to Feb. 4). Sir George Cave, K.C. (U.). |

ANNUAL REGISTER

FOR THE YEAR

1915.

PART I.

THE EUROPEAN WAR.

CHAPTER I.

NEW YEAR TO THE FALL OF PRZEMYSL.

When the year opened the fighting in the two main theatres of war had settled down to a state of comparatively permanent siege warfare. The German line in the West extended from the sea north of Nieuport, past Dixmude, east of Ypres and Arras to a point north of Compiègne. Here it turned east and ran for some little distance parallel to and somewhat north of the River Aisne; then, crossing the river, passed close to Rheims (which, however, remained in French hands) as far as Verdun. Turning south past that fortress, the German line formed a loop backwards to St. Mihiel; and passing thence north of Nancy and Lunéville, turned south again on reaching the border of Alsace, and continued as far as the Swiss border. The Germans were thus in possession of the whole of Belgium, except for the extreme westerly corner, and of a considerable area of the North-East of France, including the towns of Lille, Mézières, Laon, St. Quentin, Douai, etc. The French, on the other hand, held only an insignificant tract of German territory in the south-west of Alsace, including the village of Thann, which was still within range of the German guns.

The Allied line opposed to the Germans consisted of the entire French Army, the English and Indian expeditionary forces, and the Belgian Army; the two latter Armies were in the north of the line, but the precise disposition of the troops was not revealed. In the case both of the Allies and of the Germans, these lines

consisted of a succession of trenches. Behind each line of trenches further lines were prepared; so that when either side lost a trench the defenders merely fell back one or two hundred yards to another trench in the rear. In all such cases a vigorous counter-offensive was undertaken for the purpose of recovering the lost trenches; as the trenches themselves were fortified by barbed wire entanglements any attack could only be driven home at a very heavy cost. This fact, in conjunction with the further fact that the weather remained continuously wet and stormy, constituted almost insuperable difficulties to any continuous advance on either side.

In the East, after various advances and retreats, the campaign had settled down to a very similar condition. The Russians occupied a small portion of East Prussia, east of the Masurian Lakes. The line crossed the Prussian border near Stshutshin and continued parallel to and a few miles south of the border through Mlawá to Lipno. Turning thence south-east it ran by Plock and the north bank of the Vistula towards Warsaw which it approached to within about thirty miles. It then ran south, to Skierniewice, across the Pilica east of Piotrkow and west of Kielce, crossing the Vistula once more into Austria about thirty-five miles from Cracow and so on to the Carpathians. The Germans thus held the greater part of Western Poland; whereas the Russians occupied most of the Austrian province of Galicia. The fortress of Przemyśl, which had been invested for many weeks, however still held out.

In the minor theatres of war the Austrians had been driven out of Belgrade after a brief occupation; and the Turks were pursuing an offensive in the Caucasus which was destined shortly to an abrupt conclusion.

At sea the Allied Navies had established a complete mastery. The entire German Navy remained in the shelter of its harbours with the exception of their submarines, which ventured occasionally a considerable distance from home. Two light cruisers, the *Karlsruhe* and the *Dresden*, and two armed liners were still at large.

THE NAVAL OPERATIONS.

It was one of these excursions of German submarines that caused the first notable event of the year. In the early morning of New Year's Day the pre-Dreadnought battleship *Formidable* was sunk by a torpedo in the Channel, south of the Devonshire coast. Owing to the rough weather only about two hundred were saved out of a complement of between seven and eight hundred men. While the ship was sinking, the Captain (Captain Arthur Loxley) very gallantly signalled to another ship that she was not to stand by, lest she also should be torpedoed.

On the morning of Sunday, January 10, German aeroplanes

were busy over the Channel. Sixteen of these aircraft were seen apparently making an attempt to raid England, but they were prevented from carrying out their intention by the inclement weather, and flew off in the direction of Dunkirk. At this time Dunkirk was one of the military bases of the British Expeditionary Force—a fact which, though well known in Germany and neutral countries, was not allowed to be stated in the British Press. At 11 o'clock the aeroplanes were circling over Dunkirk and in the course of four hours dropped about fifty bombs, which resulted in the loss of six lives.

On January 19 a more important raid was attempted on the East coast of England. About 1.30 in the afternoon three German airships, believed to be Zeppelins, were sighted off the Dutch coast; and at about 8.15 bombs were dropped upon Yarmouth, doing a certain amount of damage and killing two persons. The lights in the town were immediately extinguished, and after a bombardment of about ten minutes the airships moved off in the direction of Cromer. They passed over Cromer and Sherringham towards Hunstanton which they reached about 10 p.m.; and dropping a bomb near Heacham passed not far from Sandringham to Kings Lynn, where more bombs were dropped and two more persons killed. The airships were not seen again after leaving Kings Lynn at about 11 o'clock. Although the total injury to life was very small, a man, a boy, and two women being killed, the news of the raid was received in Germany with the greatest delight, as indicating that British soil could no longer be regarded as inviolate.

Three days later, on January 22, the Germans again attacked Dunkirk with about a dozen aeroplanes. A shed in the docks was set on fire and some damage was caused to the United States Consulate; but the Germans were engaged by both the French and British airmen, who succeeded in bringing down one of the hostile aeroplanes. On the same day British aeroplanes attacked Zeebrugge dropping twenty-seven bombs on two submarines and the guns of the Mole.

German raids on the British coast were however destined to a severe retribution. Early on the morning of Sunday, January 24, four German battle-cruisers, several light cruisers and a number of destroyers were sighted in the North Sea by a patrolling flotilla of destroyers. The German squadron was steering westward and apparently making for the English coast. When sighted they were about 14 miles E.S.E. of the British battle-cruiser squadron. As soon as they were discovered, they turned and made for home, but orders were given for their pursuit. The British squadron consisted of the *Lion*, *Tiger*, *Princess Royal*, *New Zealand* and *Indomitable*; while the German squadron included the *Derfflinger*, *Seydlitz*, *Moltke* and *Blücher*. The British battle-cruisers were thus superior in fire to the

Germans; and with the possible exception of the *Derfflinger* they were able to attain a somewhat higher speed. After working up to 28 and 29 knots the British squadron began to fire at a range of about 18,000 yards and to hit at a range of 17,000 yards. The *Lion* and *Tiger*, being the fastest ships of the squadron, drew most of the enemy's fire: and at 11 o'clock a shot damaged one of the *Lion's* feed-tanks causing the port-engine to be stopped. The German squadron were thus able to make good their escape, with the exception of the *Blücher*, which was sunk at about 1.30. The British vessels were obliged to turn back when the approach of the Germans to their own waters brought the risks of mines and submarines. The fight was of special interest as being the first in which Dreadnoughts had taken part; and the *Blücher*, an armoured cruiser of 15,550 tons, was the largest vessel that had hitherto been destroyed by gun-fire in naval warfare. Vice-Admiral Sir David Beatty, who was in command of the British squadron, reported that two others of the enemy's battle-cruisers were very heavily on fire and seriously damaged. No damage of importance was done to any of the British ships, though the *Lion* had to be towed back into port by the *Indomitable*; the casualties were very few. Nevertheless it was claimed in Berlin that a British battle-cruiser had been sunk, and it was not for some time that the Germans could bring themselves to recognise the considerable disaster which had befallen them.

The German reverse at sea was followed next day by another reverse in the air. On January 25 a Zeppelin appeared above the Russian town of Libau, but was fired at by the forts and fell into the water. The Zeppelin was destroyed and the crew taken prisoners. On the afternoon of the same day it was reported that the German cruiser *Gazelle* had been attacked in the Baltic by a Russian submarine and so severely damaged that she had to be towed by a ferry-steamer into the harbour at Sassnitz.

The Germans retaliated for their naval defeat by a raid on British merchant shipping in the Irish Sea. On January 30 the submarine U 21 appeared about 30 miles N.W. of Liverpool and sank in succession three British steamers, after giving the crew time to leave their ships in boats. On the same day a German submarine in the Channel sank two steamers at a short distance from Havre; and on February 1, in the same neighbourhood, an unsuccessful attempt was made to torpedo the hospital ship *Asturias*.

On February 4 the British Foreign Office announced that, in view of the German decree by which all flour and corn were taken under the control of the German Government, any vessels carrying this kind of cargo to Germany would be seized and submitted to a prize court. Accordingly, on the 9th, the American steamer *Wilhelmina*, which had arrived at Falmouth on her way from New York to Hamburg with a cargo of food, was seized and

placed in a prize court by the customs authorities; but on February 4 the whole naval war assumed a new phase by an official German proclamation, declaring a blockade of Great Britain from February 18. The proclamation, which was signed by Von Pohl, Chief of Marine Staff at Berlin, read as follows: "The waters round Great Britain and Ireland, including the whole of the English Channel, are herewith proclaimed a war region.

"On and after February 18 every enemy merchant vessel found in this war region will be destroyed without its always being possible to warn the crew or passengers of the dangers threatening.

"Neutral ships will also incur danger in the war region, where, in view of the misuse of neutral flags ordered by the British Government and incidents inevitable in sea warfare, attacks intended for hostile ships may affect neutral ships also.

"The sea passage to the north of the Shetland Islands and the eastern region of the North Sea in a zone of at least thirty miles along the Netherlands coast is not menaced by any danger."

A few days later considerable interest was aroused by the arrival of the Cunard liner *Lusitania* at Liverpool, flying the American flag. The Foreign Office issued a statement to the effect that the use of the neutral flag was, with certain limitations, well established in practice as a *ruse de guerre*. The statement continued that the British Government had always considered the use of British colours by a foreign vessel legitimate for the purpose of escaping capture. Such a practice not only involved no breach of international law but was specifically recognised by the law of this country. A British merchant vessel therefore committed no breach of international law in assuming neutral colours for a similar purpose if she thought fit to do so.

The threat of Germany to sink neutral ships and the statement of the British Foreign Office about the use of neutral flags caused great excitement in America; and on February 12 it was announced in Washington that notes of protest had been sent to both Governments. The note presented to the German Government requested that Government to consider before taking action the critical situation in respect of the relations between the United States and Germany which might arise were German naval forces to destroy any merchant vessel of the United States or to cause the death of American citizens. It was unnecessary to remind the German Government that the sole right of a belligerent dealing with neutral vessels on the high seas was limited to visit and search, unless a blockade was proclaimed and effectively maintained, which the American Government did not understand to be proposed in this case. "If," continued the note, "commanders of German vessels of war should act upon the presumption that the flag of the United States is not being used in good faith, and should destroy on the high seas American vessels or the lives

of American citizens, it would be difficult for the Government of the United States to view the act in any other light than an indefensible violation of neutral rights, which would be very hard indeed to reconcile with the friendly relations now so happily subsisting between the two Governments. If such a deplorable situation should arise, the Imperial German Government can readily appreciate that the Government of the United States would be constrained to hold the Imperial Government to strict accountability for such acts of their naval authorities, and to take any steps which might be necessary to safeguard American lives and property, and to secure to American citizens the full enjoyment of their acknowledged rights on the high seas." The note concluded with a request for an assurance that American vessels would not be molested by the naval forces of Germany, otherwise than by visit and search, even though they might traverse the sea area delimited in the proclamation by the German Admiralty.

The note to Great Britain pointed out to His Majesty's Government the serious consequences which might result to American vessels and American citizens if the practice was continued of flying a neutral flag for the purpose of avoiding capture. The American Government considered that the occasional use of a neutral or enemy flag under the stress of immediate pursuit was a very different thing from the explicit sanction by a belligerent Government, for its merchant ships generally, to fly the flag of a neutral Power within certain portions of the high seas frequented by hostile war-ships. The note continued that such a practice would greatly endanger vessels of a friendly Power in the navigation of those waters, and would even seem to impose upon the Government of Great Britain a measure of responsibility for the loss of American lives and vessels in the case of an attack by a naval force.

During the week preceding the initiation of the so-called German blockade, several ships were destroyed by German submarines. On February 16 the French steamer *Ville de Lille* was blown up by bombs on her way from Cherbourg to Dunkirk. The British collier *Dulwich* was destroyed six miles north of Cape Antifer with a loss of nine lives. The British steamship *Laertes* was attacked at night in the North Sea by a German submarine but succeeded in evading a torpedo fired at it.

The result of the first week of the submarine "blockade" was the sinking of ten British merchant vessels; in the second week one was sunk; in the third week four; in the fourth week eight (three others were torpedoed but reached port); in the fifth week three (one other vessel was torpedoed but reached port); in the sixth week six (one other vessel was torpedoed but reached port); the total loss during the first seven weeks of the "blockade" amounted to thirty-seven British merchant vessels (of which thirty-three were sunk by submarines) and six British fishing vessels.

The gross tonnage of the merchant vessels lost was 100,987 and of the fishing vessels 1,203. In many cases the torpedoes were fired without any warning and the crews of the submarines were very generally referred to throughout the British Press as the "pirates."

The war in the air took an unfavourable turn for the Germans about the middle of February. On February 11 combined aeroplane and seaplane operations were carried out by the British Naval Wing in the Bruges, Zeebrugge, Blankenberghe and Ostend districts, in which thirty-four naval aeroplanes and seaplanes took part. On the 16th forty aeroplanes and seaplanes assisted by eight French aeroplanes bombarded Ostend, Middelkerke, Ghisteltes, and Zeebrugge. In both raids it was believed that great damage was done; the points attacked were railway stations and lines, gun-positions, transport wagons, etc. On February 17 the Germans lost two of their Zeppelins, L3 and L4, which were compelled by bad weather to descend on the Danish island of Fanø. The L3 was burnt by its crew to avoid becoming Danish property, and the L4, after most of its crew had jumped out, was carried away again by the wind and lost. The crews of both Zeppelins were interned by the Danes. On February 21 a German aeroplane appeared over Essex and dropped four bombs; one on Colchester, two on Braintree, and one on Coggeshall; but very little damage was done.

The main interest of the naval war, however, was now diverted to a powerful attack upon the Dardanelles by a British Fleet of battle-ships and cruisers aided by a strong French squadron. The attack was opened on February 19 by long range fire against the forts at the entrance, and these were after a short time reduced to silence. The *Queen Elizabeth*, one of the latest super-Dreadnoughts carrying 15 in. guns, was assisted in this work by the *Agamemnon*, *Irresistible* and *Gaulois*. After bombardment at long range, the reduction of the forts was concluded by the *Vengeance*, *Cornwallis* and other vessels which ran in at close range. Mine-sweeping operations were at once begun, and by the 26th the Straits had been cleared up to four miles from the entrance. Operations had to be suspended, however, on account of unfavourable weather; and it was not until March 3 that the attack upon forts higher up the Straits could be resumed. On March 4 demolition parties were landed at the entrance to continue the clearance of the ground, and on March 5 commenced the attack upon the forts at the Narrows which constituted by far the most difficult portion of the Straits. The *Queen Elizabeth* opened the attack from the *Ægean* Sea, throwing her shells right over the Gallipoli Peninsula. She was supported by the *Inflexible* and *Prince George*, while within the Straits the forts and concealed batteries were fired upon by French and British battleships. After much damage had been inflicted on the forts at the Narrows,

the operations had to be again postponed for ten days in order that a thorough mine-sweeping might be carried out. On the morning of March 18 a general attack was delivered by the British and French fleets upon the forts. All the ships were hit several times, but in two or three hours the whole of the forts had ceased firing. The oldest battleships had been placed in the foremost position within the Straits; and when they had done their work and were withdrawing the French battleship *Bouret* struck a drifting mine and sank with nearly all her crew within three minutes. Later in the afternoon the British battleships *Irresistible* and *Ocean* likewise struck mines and sank; but practically the whole of their crews were saved. The mines had drifted down with the current into areas which had previously been swept clear. During this important action the fleets were under the command of Rear-Admiral John Michael de Robeck who had relieved Vice-Admiral Carden two days previously. The British casualties in all were sixty-one killed, wounded and missing. Owing to the danger from drifting mines the attack was not pressed home, and unfavourable weather prevented the renewal of the operations for a considerable time.

During the attack upon the Dardanelles, subsidiary assaults were made upon Smyrna and upon the Bulair lines. The latter consist of a row of forts stretching across the neck of the Gallipoli Peninsula, which at this point is so narrow that all the forts could easily be reached by a battleship in the Gulf of Saros. The attack on Smyrna was carried out by the East Indian squadron under the command of Vice-Admiral Sir Richard Peirse. Considerable damage was inflicted upon the fort Yenî Kale, and several concealed batteries were silenced. The operations, however, were suspended at the same time as the attack on the Dardanelles.

Meanwhile several German submarines were sunk in home waters. On February 28 a small collier, the *Thordis*, reported having rammed a submarine off Beachy Head; and the report was verified by an examination of the keel and propeller of the vessel. On March 5 the submarine U8 was sunk in the channel off Dover by destroyers, and on the 10th the U12 was rammed and sunk by H.M.S. *Ariel*. All the officers and crew of the former vessel were taken prisoners, and of the second vessel ten were saved out of twenty-eight. The Admiralty announced that the prisoners taken from these submarines would be subject to special restrictions and would not be accorded the distinctions of their rank or allowed to mingle with other prisoners of war. A more important event, however, was the destruction of the *Dresden*—one of the last two German cruisers on the high seas. She was caught by the *Glasgow* and *Kent* on March 14, near Juan Fernandez Island, and after an action of five minutes caught fire and sank. There remained at large only the *Karlsruhe* and two German armed liners, all of which were destined shortly to reach

the end of their careers. This achievement was unfortunately balanced by the loss of the British auxiliary cruiser *Bayamo*. While engaged on patrol duty, she was sunk off the coast of Wigtownshire, presumably by a submarine; and out of a crew of more than two hundred only eighteen were saved.

The formal reply to the German submarine "blockade" was promulgated in an Order in Council on March 11. It followed the lines described in Mr. Asquith's statement in the House of Commons on March 1 (*Eng. Hist.*, p. 76). The Order in Council announced that the British fleet had instituted a blockade "effectively controlling by cruiser cordon all passage to and from Germany by sea." No merchant vessel which sailed from her port of departure after March 1 was to be allowed to proceed on her voyage to any German port; nor was any merchant vessel sailing from a German port after March 1 to be allowed to proceed on her voyage. Any cargo carried by ships which fell within this definition was to be discharged in a British port and sent to a prize court.

On March 24 a successful air attack was carried out by five machines of the Dunkirk squadron on Hoboken near Antwerp. It was known that the Germans were constructing submarines at this place; and four bombs were dropped from a height of 1,000 feet which set the works on fire and were believed to have effected considerable damage on two of the five submarines observed on the slip.

THE MILITARY OPERATIONS IN THE WEST.

When the year opened, a house-to-house fight was taking place in the village of Steinbach in Upper Alsace. On January 7 the French captured the village of Burnhaupt-le-Haut but were unable to retain it. In the centre of the line, on the other hand, they succeeded in taking Perthes and holding it against violent counter-attacks.

During the first three weeks of the year the weather was excessively wet and stormy; so that there were great difficulties in the way of all kinds of military movements. During this period, no active operations at all were carried out by the British Army; but a portion of the French line was compelled to retreat in the neighbourhood of Soissons. In that region the French had taken the offensive on January 8, but were met by violent counter-attacks which, however, were ineffective for several days in driving them from the trenches which they had captured. On the night of the 11th-12th floods on the Aisne carried away all but one of the bridges of Ville Neuve and Soissons. The Germans, who by this time had strongly reinforced their line, took the opportunity to deliver a severe attack upon the French, who owing to the destruction of the bridges were unable to bring up reinforcements

and were obliged to retire. In doing so, they had to abandon a few guns; but they succeeded in withdrawing their forces to the left bank of the Aisne over a front of about ten miles. The Germans made no attempt to follow up the advantage further. On the 25th a violent attack was delivered by the enemy on the French trenches to the east of Ypres, but it was driven back by a vigorous infantry fire supported by artillery. On the same date the Germans attacked the British trenches on the La Bassée Canal. They succeeded in occupying a part of the trenches before Cuinchy, and shortly afterwards attacked Givinchy and managed to set foot in the village. Sir John French immediately ordered counter-attacks and by the afternoon all the lost trenches had been recovered. Five times the Germans renewed the assault; but each time they were repulsed. Further attacks during the night met with no greater success, and several hundred German dead were left upon the field.

It was anticipated that the Kaiser's birthday, January 27, would be made the occasion of strong German attacks. Certain efforts were in effect made at La Bassée, La Creute, Perthes, Bagatelle and in the Woëvre, but they came to nothing; and the German losses during these three days were estimated at 20,000 men. Throughout February and March no movement of any magnitude was attempted by the French. The operations continued to be of the character of siege warfare and in various parts of the line the French succeeded in capturing German trenches, and making short local advances. In addition to artillery duels, mine-throwers were much used. On both sides underground tunnels were driven through until they reached the enemy's trenches, underneath which mines were then laid and exploded by electricity. At certain places the Germans sprayed the advance trenches of the French with a burning liquid; and the trenches in consequence had to be abandoned. In February the main French effort took place in Champagne where some progress was made; and in one period of ten days no fewer than 1,000 Germans surrendered. At this time the cathedral at Rheims was again bombarded. In March the French paid more attention to the wedge which the Germans had driven into their lines at St. Mihiel the preceding year. They attacked both the north and south sides of this wedge, particularly in the region of Les Eparges where some progress was made. The reports from the French and German sides were very conflicting; but the impression left at the time was that the initiative was in the hands of the French, who from time to time were able to score local successes against the enemy—insignificant perhaps in themselves but tending to develop a moral supremacy over the Germans.

With one conspicuous exception, the fighting of the British Army was of the same character. During the first three weeks of the year snow and floods entirely precluded any active operations.

On January 25 the enemy began to shell Bethune but was driven back by a counter-attack with considerable loss. On the 29th an attack was made to the south of La Bassée Canal, and on February 1 the Coldstream Guards were for a few hours driven from their trenches near Cuinchy; but these were speedily recovered, and thirty-two German prisoners with two machine-guns were captured. Throughout February various actions of comparative unimportance took place; but on the 19th of the month Sir John French decided to institute a vigorous offensive movement against the enemy. He was guided in this determination, partly to assist the Russians, partly because he detected a weakening of the enemy before him, and partly to encourage the offensive spirit of the troops after their long exposure to the hardships of a winter campaign. The objective of the proposed advance was to be the capture of the village of Neuve Chapelle, west of Lille. The battle was opened on March 10 by an artillery bombardment of the enemy's position; and after half an hour's extremely severe shelling an infantry attack was launched by the 23rd and 25th Brigades of the 8th division against the German trenches to the north-west of the village, and by the Garhwal Brigade of the Meerut division farther south. The Garhwal Brigade and the 25th Brigade carried the enemy's lines of entrenchments almost at once; for the wire entanglements by which they were defended had been almost entirely swept away by artillery fire. But unfortunately this was not the case with the 23rd Brigade, which was held up for two or three hours by the entanglements. By 11 o'clock in the morning, however, that is to say three and a half hours after the battle had been opened, the whole village of Neuve Chapelle had been captured; and the fire of the artillery formed a screen beyond it which effectually prevented any German reinforcements from coming up to the assistance. After the village had been captured there was considerable confusion before the various units could be brought together to continue the advance. This confusion appeared to be in great part due to the temporary delay of the 23rd Brigade and to the fact that the enemy's fire had broken telephonic communication between the front and rear. Accordingly no further advance took place until 3.30 in the afternoon; and by this time the various brigades moving out from Neuve Chapelle found themselves held up by machine-guns established in the houses and trenches in the neighbourhood. On the following day it became apparent that no further advance could be made until these defended localities had been dealt with effectively by artillery, but this unfortunately the artillery were unable to do. On the one hand weather conditions did not permit of aerial observation; on the other hand telephonic communication had been cut between the artillery observers and their batteries, so that the fire could not be controlled. Even when an occasional house had been occupied by our troops it was found impossible to notify the artillery that it

was no longer in possession of the enemy. On the next day again the same conditions prevailed; on that day violent counter-attacks were launched by the enemy, but they were all repulsed with ease. Sir John French, however, decided to suspend further offensive operations for the time being. The British casualties during the three days' fighting amounted to 190 officers, and 2,337 other ranks killed; 359 officers, and 8,174 other ranks wounded; and 23 officers and 1,728 other ranks missing. The enemy left several thousand dead on the field. Information was received that 12,000 wounded had been removed by train; and 30 officers and 1,657 other ranks were made prisoners.

On March 14 the Germans directed a surprise attack against the British troops defending St. Eloi. The attack was initiated as usual by an artillery bombardment, and was assisted by the explosion of a mine under the British trenches. The enemy's infantry succeeded in penetrating the first line of trenches at certain points, and captured a portion of the village of St. Eloi. At 2 o'clock on the following morning, however, they were driven out of St. Eloi by a counter-attack, and most of the lost ground was recovered. A further effort by the enemy in this region two days later was repulsed with heavy loss. Special praise was awarded by Sir John French to Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry. The main lesson of the battle of Neuve Chapelle was the importance of an overwhelming artillery fire; and it became apparent that the supply of ammunition would be one of the most important factors towards ultimate success.

On March 27 the Bishop of London arrived at the front and continued to hold services among the troops until April 5.

The negotiations for an exchange of wounded prisoners with Germany came to fruition about the middle of February, when 8 officers and 211 non-commissioned officers and men arrived at Folkestone and were conveyed by special train to London. The negotiations had been carried on through the medium of the embassies of the United States in London and Berlin; much difficulty was experienced before an agreement could be arrived at; but the exchange was a source of very lively satisfaction to the fortunate British soldiers who returned to England.

THE MILITARY OPERATIONS IN THE EAST.

The beginning of the year was characterised by severe fighting on the left bank of the Vistula, but owing to the conditions already named little advance was made on either side. The German offensive against Warsaw appeared, however, to be definitely checked. In Galicia, Russian operations were chiefly confined to the neighbourhood of the Carpathians; but the only considerable advance that was made was in Bukowina. During the first week of the year the Russians marched 120 miles through this province,

driving the Austrians before them. On January 3 they occupied the town of Suczawa, one mile from the Rumanian frontier; and on the 6th they occupied Kimpolung near the Hungarian frontier. In the course of this advance about a thousand Austrian prisoners were taken.

The only decisive action of this period, however, was the victory of the Russians over the Turks in Transcaucasia. On January 1 a battle was already in progress in the region of Sarykamysch, and in the course of a few days the Turkish Army was completely defeated. Their 9th Army Corps was annihilated and its commander taken prisoner. The Russians captured the entire artillery of the corps, all the generals and about 300 officers. The 10th Turkish Army Corps was also severely handled; these two corps had advanced against Sarykamysch by mountainous roads covered with snow, almost without supply convoys or field artillery. The Turks relied upon the assistance of the native Mussulmans among whom they had previously despatched emissaries. This battle took place at an altitude of 10,000 feet, in mountainous passes covered with snow and in the most rigorous winter weather.

This Russian victory, however, was not attained without considerable sacrifice elsewhere. In order to meet the Turkish offensive in Transcaucasia, Russian troops had been withdrawn from Tabriz and the rich Persian Province of Azerbaijan; and the announcement of the Russian victory was quickly followed by the news that Tabriz had been occupied by the Turks. The occupation, however, was not of long duration, for on February 2 *The Times* correspondent at Petrograd announced that the Russians had re-entered the town without firing a shot. The Turks in occupation had advanced in order to meet a Russian detachment; and this detachment by a swift enveloping movement completely cut off the Turkish troops from the town and put them to flight.

The Russian victory in the Caucasus was quickly followed by another which completed the ruin of Enver Pasha's plans. The Russians while pursuing the remnants of the 10th Turkish Corps after its rout at Sarykamysch came into direct conflict with the 11th corps near Kara Urgan, and a battle ensued which lasted three days, from January 14, during a continuous snowstorm. The 52nd Turkish regiment was annihilated by a bayonet attack, and in one direction where the Russians were pursuing the defeated Turks they captured more than 5,000 prisoners, 14 guns, an enormous quantity of supplies and nearly 10,000 head of cattle. The rear-guards covering the retreat of the Turkish Army were annihilated, and the main body of the defeated troops fled in the direction of Erzrum.

Towards the end of January signs began to appear of an attempted Turkish advance upon Egypt. On January 26 at El Kantara the advance guard of a Turkish column had a brush with

a British patrol; and on February 2 a definite attempt was made to cross the Suez Canal in the neighbourhood of Ismailia. Their activity was checked by a sand-storm, however; their shooting both with guns and rifles was bad and they were quickly forced to retreat, the only casualties among the British being six men wounded. On the same night another attempt to cross the canal was made near Toussun. The enemy were allowed to bring bridging material to the bank of the canal unmolested, but directly they started bridging, the British troops delivered an attack which was completely successful. Some of the enemy were drowned and the rest fled in disorder, leaving behind the whole of their material. On the following morning they delivered an attack on the El Kantara front but again were easily repulsed with a loss of sixteen killed and wounded and forty prisoners. In this fight the British casualties amounted to three wounded.

Meanwhile the events in Poland and Galicia were comparatively insignificant, and limited to the form of trench warfare. The advance of the Russians in Bukowina continued, and on the 16th their advance guards seized the Kirlibaba Pass in the Carpathians bordering on Transylvania, while a day or two later they occupied the village of Johaneschti, ten miles north of Dorna Watra. At this point, however, the Russian offensive came temporarily to an end, and the official *communiqué* of January 22 mentioned the concentration of considerable Austrian forces in Bukowina. At the beginning of February these forces caused the Russians gradually to fall back, although fighting in other parts of the Carpathians continued to maintain a favourable outlook. On February 5 for instance near Mezö-Laborcz the Austrians were pursued for a distance of several miles and the Russians captured 2 guns, 5 machine-guns, 47 officers and 2,516 soldiers. In the Southern Carpathians in Bukowina it appeared that the Austrians had brought up several divisions which had previously been fighting against the Serbians. Nevertheless the total captures made by the Russians in this region between January 26 and February 5 amounted to 11 field-guns, 2 mountain-guns, 2 bomb-mortars, 22 machine-guns, more than 170 officers and more than 10,000 rank and file. About January 31 and February 1 it was known that fierce battles were raging between Dukla and the Upper San, but few details of the conflict were published. The Russian offensive in this district continued throughout the first week of February, and on the 6th a battle took place at the Lupkow Pass in which 69 Austrian officers, 5,200 soldiers and 18 machine-guns were captured.

Towards the middle of February the enemy strongly assumed the offensive at both ends of the Russian line. The Austrians recovered from the Russians a great part of the territory in Bukowina which they had lost, and at the same time a still more important movement was initiated by the Germans against the

Russian positions in East Prussia. On February 4 it was definitely ascertained that von Hindenburg had been reinforced by four new army corps in East Prussia: these being constituted partly from new recruits and reserve forces, and partly from Prussian troops withdrawn from the Western front. This strengthening of the German forces compelled the Russians entirely to evacuate East Prussia and to withdraw to the shelter of their own fortresses. According to the German official account a battle of nine days took place in the district of the Masurian Lakes, in the course of which the Russian 10th Army, consisting of about eleven infantry and several cavalry divisions, were utterly defeated and driven over the frontier. At this battle, which was witnessed by the Kaiser, the Germans claimed to have captured more than 50,000 prisoners as well as fifty cannon and sixty machine-guns. According to the information available, the Russian retreat was effected without any other important action. On the Russian side of the frontier there were various conflicts of minor importance—*viz.*, west of Margrabowo, near Lyck, half-way between Ostroleko and Myszyniec, west of Myszyniec, and in the region of Sierpc; and in some of these, notably near Lyck, the enemy's attacks were repulsed with considerable losses. A great effort was made by the Germans to surround the two wings of the Russian Army which had been in East Prussia, but the attempt did not succeed.

The causes of the Russian defeat in the Masurian Lakes were the same as those which compelled their retirement in West Poland in 1914, *viz.*, the superior network of strategic railways possessed by the Germans. This network conferred upon them the power of rapidly concentrating strong forces at any fixed point; and the indifferent railway system of the Russians precluded them from bringing up corresponding reinforcements in sufficient time. The Russian 10th Army, which had occupied strong positions along the Angerap and the Masurian Lakes, would have been completely overwhelmed if it had not hastily retired across the frontier to the lines of the Niemen and the Bobr. The retreat was rendered particularly difficult by the deep snow which made the roads impassable and the motor transport vans immovable, while even the supply trains often failed to reach their destinations. A retreat therefore which under ordinary circumstances would have occupied four days was protracted to nine days; and one of the army corps of the 10th Army was pressed by the Germans into so difficult a position that practically none of it succeeded in escaping. This corps was separated from the remainder of the 10th Army and surrounded by a German Army whose numbers continued to increase from February 13 to 22. Nevertheless it continued fighting and marching heroically, carrying with it German prisoners until its strength and ammunition was completely exhausted. Two regiments,

however, belonging to this army corps succeeded in breaking their way through the enemy's lines and rejoining the main Russian Army after they had been regarded as finally lost.

By the time that the Russian troops had succeeded in taking up their new position under the shelter of their own fortresses the German offensive was almost spent, and it broke finally before the guns of the Russian forts and particularly those of Osowiec.

The Russian line now ran parallel to the frontier and at a distance from it varying between five and twenty-five miles. Wirballen, Suwalki, Augustowo, and other places were abandoned to the enemy. From Osowiec the Russian line ran south of Przasnysz, where a vigorous German offensive was being pushed, and then farther westwards to Sierpc where it turned south again to Plock.

Meanwhile the corresponding offensive movement of the Austrians against the other end of the Russian line, *viz.*, in Bukowina, was likewise attended with success. In the middle of February the enemy captured Nadworna and crossed the Sereth River; and a few days afterwards the Russians were driven entirely out of Bukowina. In other parts of the line, however, the Russians continued to score local successes. Between January 21 and February 20 their Carpathian Army captured 691 officers, 47,640 rank and file, 17 guns and 118 machine-guns; probably the whole of the enemy's line had been weakened for the purpose of bringing powerful simultaneous turning attacks against both ends of the Russian line.

It was said above that, at the conclusion of the Russian retreat from East Prussia, the Germans assumed a specially vigorous offensive in the neighbourhood of Przasnysz. This town is about fifty miles north of Warsaw, and the enemy obviously hoped to break the Russian line and advance upon the Polish capital; their offensive against Przasnysz had indeed begun early in the month by an attack upon the Russian troops near Mława twenty miles farther to the west. This offensive was checked, however, as a result of violent battles on February 16 and February 18. It was begun again on the 20th from the direction of Chorzele almost due north. The Germans advanced with impetuous speed, passed east of Przasnysz and then turned west, south of the town, while at the same time the attacks were renewed in the region of Mława. On February 24 a sanguinary battle took place, at the end of which the Germans succeeded in entering Przasnysz. The Russians, however, were already launching their counter-stroke and on the same day they inflicted a defeat on the 36th German reserve division which was holding the passages of the Orzec River. A fierce battle was joined in the neighbourhood of Voliaverlovska, which continued for two days with varying success before the Germans were slowly driven back upon their positions near Przasnysz. But it was not till the 26th, after

further battles had taken place, that the Russians were able to re-enter that town; nor had they completely regained possession of it before the evening of the 27th. The Germans then began to retreat towards Mława and Chorzele, closely pursued by the Russians. The German onslaught was thus finally repelled and 10,000 prisoners were left in Russian hands.

Other simultaneous offensive movements on the part of the Germans came to naught. An advance in the direction of Grodno was arrested by the German defeat at Przasnysz, and 1,000 prisoners were captured together with six cannon and some machine-guns. In the battle at Grodno the Russians estimated that the 21st German Army Corps lost from 12,000 to 15,000 killed. In the Carpathians also an attempt was made by the Austrians to relieve Przemyśl, and on February 28 a sanguinary encounter occurred in which the Austrians were finally overthrown with the loss of large numbers of prisoners and some machine-guns. In Eastern Galicia the Austrian advance was also finally checked. After re-conquering Bukowina the Austrians had continued moving northwards, had captured Stanisław and crossed the Dniester; but at the beginning of March the tide turned and in the neighbourhood of Krasna the Russians took 6,000 prisoners. When the fighting in this region again settled down, the Russians were in possession of the northern part of Bukowina and also of Stanisław. During the first three weeks of March fierce fighting continued to take place in the Carpathians and other parts of the line, but so far as could be ascertained there were no movements of any great significance. In the neighbourhood of Taurögen the Germans were again driven back into their own territory. On March 18 a Russian detachment succeeded in reaching the town of Memel in the north-east of Prussia, but their occupation did not last more than a day or two.

There now occurred one of the most important events that had yet taken place in the Eastern theatre of war. The fortress of Przemyśl, which had been besieged by the Russians intermittently for nearly six months, capitulated on March 22. Towards the end of the autumn in the previous year the Russians had originally arrived at the gates of the fortress, but their demand for its surrender had met with a dignified refusal. During the second invasion of Poland by the Austro-German Armies, the enemy's lines swept up to and just beyond Przemyśl, interrupting the investment of the fortress. The wave of the Austrian invasion began to subside at the end of the first week in November; and thereafter the siege was maintained continuously for over four months. The siege was not of a very close description, for the peasants of adjacent villages were able to pass freely to and from the town of Przemyśl. The Russians, moreover, after a preliminary attack, decided not to bombard the town further, in view of the threat of relief by the Austrian armies in the Carpathians, and the danger

which a successful Austrian advance would bring to their siege material. In point of fact the relieving armies at one time succeeded in coming near enough to establish signalling communication with the fortress. Early in March, however, the danger from this source seemed to have passed away, and a bombardment was carried out in earnest. Sorties were made by the Austrians at different times, and on March 18 the garrison prepared for its final effort. They opened fire on the Russian positions and continued throughout the day to spend an enormous quantity of ammunition. At 5 o'clock on the following morning the Austrians made a determined sortie in an easterly direction, but in the course of the day they were forced back into the town. On this occasion nearly 4,000 were captured by the Russians, and it was believed that the Austrians lost nearly 3,500 in dead and wounded; thereupon the garrison set about destroying their remaining stores of military material, and two days later surrendered to the Russians. Little authentic news was published at the time as to the condition in which the garrison was found or as to their actual numbers; but the correspondent of *The Times*, who succeeded in making his way to the town immediately after its capture, affirmed that the common soldiers and civilians exhibited all the signs of having undergone severe hardship; while the officers, on the other hand, appeared to be thoroughly well fed and to have suffered little. According to the same authority the numbers of the captured garrison amounted to about 130,000 men and 4,000 officers. The capture of Przemyśl not only consolidated the position of the Russians in Galicia, but released large bodies of troops for operations in other districts.

Meanwhile the war with Turkey proceeded with but little incident. About the middle of March the Russian Army in the Caucasus reached the village of Archava on the Black Sea and the Turks were likewise repulsed in the directions of Ardanuch and Olty. In Egypt there were two further actions with the Turks during the first quarter of the year. The first of these occurred on February 12 in the neighbourhood of Mount Sinai. The Turks had detached a body of nearly 200 men to attack the Government station at Tor. While these troops were in occupation of a village about 5 miles N. of Tor, a British detachment was landed in their rear, and advancing over the hills made a surprise attack upon their position at dawn on February 12. The enemy's force was annihilated; over 60 were killed and 100 prisoners taken, and it was believed that none escaped.

The only other action with the Turks in this region which took place before Easter was on March 22 when a party of the enemy was discovered near the El Kubri post opposite Suez. Their number was estimated by aeroplanes at about 1,000, consisting of infantry, artillery and a few cavalry. The guns at El Kubri opened fire and inflicted casualties which caused the enemy to

retire and form camp 8 miles E. of the Canal; early on the following morning they were attacked and routed by General Sir G. Younghusband.

With regard to the operations in the Persian Gulf very great secrecy was maintained. The only statements that were issued officially during the first three months of the year were dated March 7 and March 8. In the first announcement the public were informed that the Turks to the number of about 12,000 had occupied Ghadir, west of the British position of Ahwaz. A reconnoitring party from the Ahwaz garrison was sharply attacked by the enemy on March 3, but they succeeded in holding the attackers at bay and making good their retirement at the expense of heavy losses. The enemy were believed to have lost about 600 killed and very many wounded. On the same day a cavalry reconnaissance about 25 miles N.W. of Basra succeeded in luring 1,500 hostile horsemen on to a concealed British position, occupied by infantry with machine-guns and field artillery. Three hundred of the enemy were killed and 600 wounded.

CHAPTER II.

THE SUMMER CAMPAIGN.

THE main importance of the summer campaign lay in the Eastern theatre of war, where a great German advance drove the Russians out of Poland and far into the interior of Russia. In the West there were no movements whatever of any importance or significance; and the entry of Italy into the war had little apparent effect upon the progress of the fighting elsewhere. The operations in the Dardanelles were of great importance and attracted much public interest, but here again no tangible result was achieved. During the warm weather there were numerous Zeppelin raids on the East coast of England, while the war at sea turned principally on the attacks of German submarines on British commerce, which culminated in the sinking of the *Lusitania*. We shall give an account first of these operations.

THE NAVAL OPERATIONS.

On March 28 the British s.s. *Falaba*, 4,806 tons, was torpedoed to the south of the St. George's Channel and sank in ten minutes with the loss of over 100 lives. During the same week two or three other smaller vessels were sunk by German submarines. The Admiralty, however, were able to announce a compensating success; namely, that the German submarine U 29 had been sunk with all hands. This vessel was commanded by Captain Otto Weddigen, who on September 22, 1914, had sunk the three British cruisers *Hogue*, *Cressy* and *Aboukir*; and also

on October 16 the *Hawke*. During the first week in April many other vessels were sunk by German submarines, the largest of which was the Ellerman Line steamer *Flaminian* of 3,440 gross tonnage. On April 1 an air attack was carried out on German submarines which were being constructed at Hoboken near Hamburg; several bombs were dropped and it was believed with successful results. Two days later in the Gulf of Odessa the Turkish cruiser *Medjidieh* struck a Russian mine, blew up and sank.

By the middle of April the last of the German auxiliary cruisers were swept off the high seas. The *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* at the beginning of the month put into port at Newport News and was there interned by the American authorities. Finally, on April 11, the *Kronprinz Wilhelm* cast anchor in Hampton Roads and was likewise interned; nothing had been heard of her since the beginning of the war, on August 3, when she left New York, but in the meanwhile she was supposed to have destroyed thirteen British and French merchant vessels. She plainly showed the ravages of her eight months' cruise; more than sixty of her crew and prisoners were suffering from beri-beri owing to their rice diet. She had only twenty-one tons of coal left, and was unable to salute the American warships owing to the exhaustion of her supplies of ammunition.

On May 1 a series of small affairs took place in the neighbourhood of the Galoper and North Hinder lightships. During the morning the destroyer *Recruit* was sunk by a German submarine; and at 3 o'clock in the afternoon a trawler was attacked and sunk by two German torpedo-boats. A division of British destroyers, however, chased the two German vessels, and after a running fight of about an hour sunk them both without sustaining any casualties. On the same day the American steamer *Gulfight* was torpedoed off the Scilly Islands, an act which caused great indignation in America.

These minor misfortunes, however, were soon destined to be eclipsed by a far more tragic occurrence. For some days advertisements had been appearing in various American newspapers warning passengers not to embark for Great Britain owing to the danger of destruction in British waters. These advertisements were signed by the Imperial German Embassy at Washington, but when reported in England they excited nothing but contempt and ridicule. The German threat, however, was realised in a very dramatic manner. On the afternoon of May 7 the great Cunard liner *Lusitania* was torpedoed by a German submarine off the Old Head of Kinsale, south-west of Queenstown Harbour, with the loss of 1,198 lives. The *Lusitania*, which had a displacement of about 40,000 tons, was the largest ship of the British mercantile marine and was constructed to carry 2,800 passengers. Two torpedoes struck the vessel and no warning of any kind was

given. The *Lusitania* was carrying at the time 1,255 passengers and a crew of 651; and although the weather was very fine, it was not possible to save more than about 700 lives. The sinking of the ship by an unseen German submarine caused a storm of indignation throughout the country. At the inquest on the victims, which was held at Kinsale, the jury returned a verdict of wilful and wholesale murder against the officers of the submarine and the Emperor and Government of Germany under whose orders they acted. Owing to the large number of American citizens who were sunk in the *Lusitania*, an acute situation was raised between Germany and the United States. The German Government telegraphed its sympathy to Washington at the loss of American lives, and threw upon the British Government the responsibility for initiating such inhuman methods of war. They stated that the *Lusitania* had on previous voyages repeatedly carried large quantities of war materials, and that on the present occasion she was carrying 4,500 cases of ammunition, while the rest of the cargo also consisted chiefly of contraband. The German telegram continued that British merchant vessels were generally armed with guns and had repeatedly tried to ram submarines, so that it was impossible for any warning to be given.

It was clear, however, that America did not mean to go to war over this event. President Wilson, speaking at Philadelphia, said that the example of America must be a special example of peace, because peace was the healing, elevating influence of the world and strife was not. There was such a thing as a man being "too proud to fight," such a thing as a nation being so right that it did not need to convince others by force that it was right.

Questions in the House of Commons elicited the statement that the Admiralty had sent a warning to the *Lusitania*, and directions for her course. Mr. Churchill stated that it was impossible to supply destroyer escort for merchant or passenger ships; of which more than 200 on the average arrived or departed safely every day. A Board of Trade investigation was undertaken, under the Presidency of Lord Mersey, into the events connected with the disaster.

The report of this court was read by Lord Mersey on July 17. It stated that "the loss of the said ship and lives was due to damage caused to the said ship by torpedoes fired by a submarine of German nationality whereby the ship sank. In the opinion of the court the act was done not merely with the intention of sinking the ship but also with the intention of destroying the lives of the people on board." The report found that the cargo was a general cargo of the ordinary kind, but included a number of cases of cartridges (about 5,000). There was no other explosive on board. The statements of the German Government to the effect that the *Lusitania* was equipped with masked guns, supplied with trained gunners and special ammunition, that she was transport-

ing Canadian troops and that she was violating the laws of the United States, Lord Mersey found to be untrue. "They are nothing but baseless inventions and they serve only to condemn the persons who make use of them." The two torpedoes, which struck the ship on the starboard side, were fired without warning of any kind. There was some evidence that a third torpedo had been fired from the port side, but missed the *Lusitania*. Lord Mersey relieved the captain from blame, although he had not followed the advice given him by the Admiralty for averting the dangers he was likely to encounter.

On the same day as the sinking of the *Lusitania* the torpedo-boat destroyer *Maori* struck a mine and sank off the Belgian coast. The crew of the *Maori*, as also some boats' crews of H.M. ship *Crusader* who tried to rescue them, amounting in all to seven officers and eighty-eight men, were taken prisoners into Zeebrugge.

On May 27 an unfortunate accident occurred in Sheerness Harbour; when H.M. auxiliary ship *Princess Irene* was blown up, and only one man rescued from the crew. No cause for the calamity could be discovered. On June 9 Mr. Balfour announced the sinking of another German submarine and the capture of six officers and twenty-one men. The destruction of this vessel was made the occasion for the abandonment of the policy of treating submarine prisoners differently from ordinary prisoners. A few days later the British torpedo-boats Numbers 10 and 12 while operating off the East coast were torpedoed by an enemy submarine and sunk, forty-one survivors being landed.

No other naval events of importance occurred until July 2 when a naval battle took place in the Baltic between some Russian cruisers and German light cruisers and torpedo-boat destroyers: one German mine-laying cruiser of 2,200 tons was destroyed. At the same time the German pre-Dreadnought battleship *Pommern* (13,000 tons) was blown up by two torpedoes from a British submarine under Commander Max K. Horton, D.S.O. The announcement of this success was the first intimation in England that British submarines had been operating in the Baltic. In the middle of July the King paid a visit to the Grand Fleet under the command of Admiral Sir John Jellicoe; he expressed his pride and admiration at the splendid aspect of the Navy and gave vent to the complete confidence which he felt in its efficiency.

The clearance of German cruisers from the sea was followed by the destruction of the cruiser *Königsberg*, which had been sheltering since the previous October some distance up the Rufiji River (German East Africa), in a position which could only be attained by ships of shallow draught. Ships of this type, however, were supplied by the Admiralty in the form of two river monitors, the *Severn* and the *Mersey*; and on July 4 these vessels entered the river and opened fire upon the *Königsberg*, which had pre-

viously been located by aircraft. The German cruiser promptly replied and the *Mersey* was twice hit, four men being killed and four wounded by one shell. Owing to the surrounding jungle the aeroplanes found great difficulty in marking the fall of the shot; but after six hours' firing the German vessel caught fire between the masts and finally ceased to reply, either on account of lack of ammunition or disablement of her guns. A week later a second attack was made upon the *Königsberg*, as a result of which she became a total wreck. In this engagement two men were wounded on the *Mersey*.

Meanwhile the so-called submarine blockade continued in a desultory fashion, a few merchant ships being sunk nearly every week. On July 30 the Leyland liner *Iberian* was met by a German submarine and attacked by shells, four of her crew being killed; more usually, however, the vessels were torpedoed without notice or after a few minutes' notice. On July 27 three Danish schooners were torpedoed, and a day or two afterwards a Norwegian steamer. But these losses were not carried out with impunity; it was known that many more German submarines had been destroyed than the Admiralty had chosen to publish, though the methods adopted for dealing with them were still a secret. An unusual occurrence as regards submarines occurred in the Upper Adriatic on August 11, when an Italian submarine torpedoed the Austrian submarine U 12 and sunk it with all on board. About the same time three losses were experienced in the North Sea. H.M. ship *Lynx* (destroyer) struck a mine and sank with most of her crew on August 9; while H.M. ship *Ramsay*, a small armed patrol vessel, was sunk by the German auxiliary steamer *Meteor* on August 8. On the same day H.M. auxiliary cruiser *India* was torpedoed and sunk by a German submarine. The *Meteor*, however, subsequently sighting a squadron of British cruisers and realising the impossibility of her escape was abandoned and blown up by her own crew. In the meantime a German Fleet of considerable size made persistent but unavailing attempts to enter the Gulf of Riga. On August 9 a further engagement ensued outside the Gulf of Riga and the Germans claimed to have inflicted some slight damage on a Russian destroyer.

A week later a German submarine fired several shells at Parton, Harrington and Whitehaven, causing only a few fires, which were soon extinguished. A railway embankment near Parton was hit several times, but the train service was only slightly delayed.

On August 16 the German Fleet renewed its attacks on the Russian position at the entrance of the Gulf of Riga. Taking advantage of a thick fog they penetrated some distance into the gulf, continuing for several days an engagement with the Russian ships. The Russian gun-boat *Sivutch* was sunk by a German cruiser; while during the five days of the engagement eight

torpedo vessels belonging to the enemy were either put out of action or sunk. A still more important success was announced in the Duma by its President, namely, that during this action a British submarine had successfully torpedoed a German battleship of the Moltke type, one of the most powerful Dreadnoughts of the German Fleet.

On August 22 a German destroyer was sunk off Ostend by two French torpedo-boats; but as against this had to be set the loss of the British submarine E 13 which grounded on the Danish Island of Saltholm on August 19 while making its way into the Baltic. A Danish torpedo-boat informed E 13 that she would be allowed twenty-four hours to try to get off; but about four hours later two German destroyers fired a torpedo at her, and one of them fired upon her with all her guns, setting the submarine on fire, so that it had to be abandoned. The German fire did not cease while the men were in the water until a Danish torpedo-boat had steamed between the submarine and the German destroyers, which thereupon had to withdraw. This gross breach of international law caused great indignation in Denmark.

An offence of a still more serious character, however, was committed on August 26 when the White Star liner *Arabic*, with 181 passengers on board and a crew of 248, was torpedoed and sunk without warning by a German submarine at some distance from Queenstown. Fortunately, not more than thirty-nine of the passengers and crew were lost. Seeing that twenty-six of the passengers on board were American citizens the disaster threatened to rupture relations between Germany and the United States. The position was relieved, however, by the acceptance on the part of Germany of all the American demands as set out in the President's note after the *Lusitania* outrage. Most important of these was the undertaking that no vessel should be sunk without a warning, and without ensuring the safety of the lives of non-combatants.

Notwithstanding this assurance, which was delivered by Count Bernstorff on September 1, another vessel, the Allan liner *Hesperian*, was torpedoed three days later off the Irish coast; she carried 314 passengers and a crew of 250; of these twenty-five persons, including one American citizen, were lost. There were on board a large number of bags of letters and newspapers many of which were for the United States and some of which originated in neutral countries. For this act the Germans subsequently delivered an apology to the United States, saying that the attack upon the *Hesperian* had been a mistake and that the commander of the submarine had been censured.

At the beginning of September an aeroplane succeeded in destroying a German submarine off Ostend by dropping bombs on it. In the Admiralty announcement of this event, it was stated that the losses of German submarines had been important, but

that a practice had been made of concealing them in cases where the enemy had no other source of information as to the time and place at which these losses had occurred. A few days after this statement the Germans made for the first time a public admission that they had lost a submarine, namely U 27, which they had last heard of west of the Hebrides. No other naval event of importance occurred during the summer, with the exception of those related hereafter in connexion with the attack upon the Dardanelles.

THE WAR IN THE AIR.

Throughout the summer, Zeppelin raids occurred constantly at various parts of the East coast, but in many cases the names of the places actually attacked were concealed from the public and are still not allowed to be published. On the night of April 14 there was an attack upon the North-East coast, in the course of which an airship traversed a large area of the mid-Tyne district where important shipbuilding was in progress. This raid was followed by one on East Anglia, bombs being dropped on Lowestoft, Yarmouth, and other towns, but resulting in very little damage to property and no loss of life. A German aeroplane which flew over Kent about the same time was driven off without any damage being done.

On May 10 a Zeppelin dropped nearly a hundred bombs in and about Southend-on-Sea, killing a woman and doing damage to the extent of about 20,000*l*. One week later several bombs were dropped on Ramsgate, doing some damage to property and injuring three persons. This Zeppelin, however, was attacked and severely damaged by eight naval machines on her way home. A further visit to the East coast was made on May 26 but effected very little damage. On the last day of May an attempt of more audacious character was made; for Zeppelins succeeded in reaching the neighbourhood of London, and ninety bombs, mostly of an incendiary character, were dropped in various localities without, however, injuring any public building or inflicting any casualties. On June 4 and again on June 6 incendiary and explosive bombs were thrown on the East and South-East coast, causing a few casualties and a small amount of material damage.

To set against these raids upon the East coast there has to be recorded the destruction of a Zeppelin under very remarkable circumstances. Early on the morning of June 7 Flight-Sub-Lieutenant R. A. J. Warneford, R.N., attacked a Zeppelin in the air between Ghent and Brussels at a height of about 6,000 feet. He dropped six bombs which caused the airship to explode and fall to the ground. But the force of the explosion caused Lieutenant Warneford's monoplane to turn upside down and he was forced to land in the enemy's country. When on the ground,

however, he succeeded in re-starting his engine and returned safely to the aerodrome. For this achievement the King conferred upon him the V.C.; not many days later he was unfortunately killed in an accident (*v. Obituary*).

On June 15 sixteen deaths were caused on the North-East coast and fires broke out in various parts, but were quickly suppressed. No other attacks of importance were made until August 9 when a squadron of hostile airships dropped incendiary bombs and killed about fourteen people. One of these Zeppelins was seriously damaged by the gunfire of the land defences and had to be towed into Ostend. There the attack was continued by aircraft until she was completely destroyed by an explosion. As these raids were usually carried out on very dark nights difficulty was commonly experienced by the aeroplanes which pursued them. Two days later there was a further attack upon the East coast, resulting in the loss of six lives, but it was believed that some damage was inflicted on one of the Zeppelins. On August 28 Mr. Balfour issued an account from the Admiralty of the results hitherto achieved by the Zeppelins. He said that during the previous twelve months seventy-one civilian adults and eighteen children had been killed; 189 civilian adults and thirty-one children had been injured. No soldier or sailor had been killed and only seven had been wounded. It was clear therefore that the cumulative results of many successive raids were far less than could be inflicted by one submarine which torpedoed a passenger ship.

On September 8 there was another attack upon the eastern counties and London district, causing 106 casualties, including twenty deaths; most of these casualties occurred in various parts of London, where a considerable amount of damage to private property was said to have been inflicted. By this time the gunnery defences of London were well organised and Admiral Sir Percy Scott, Bart., was appointed to take charge of them.

THE WESTERN THEATRE OF WAR.

Throughout the summer no large offensive operations were undertaken by either side. The new British armies gradually began to make their appearance in the trenches and a somewhat longer line could in consequence be held by the British troops. At the end of March an energetic engagement took place in Alsace lasting several days, as the result of which the French succeeded in capturing the summit of the Hartmannsweilerkopf and made a certain number of prisoners. Offensive operations were also continued by the French in Northern Champagne, the object of which was to keep a constant pressure on the enemy's first line of defence, to affect his use of the railway from Bazancourt to Challerange, and to wear down his reserves of men and ammunition.

The latter point was to a great extent achieved ; for the Germans were obliged to use thirty-three regiments in this part of the line, which they had previously held with eighteen. In the first week of April it was estimated by the French authorities that the Germans had already lost considerably more than half their effectives in officers. The total casualties among their officers were reckoned at 31,276, including 100 generals, forty-three of whom had been killed.

On April 8 a vigorous attack by the French gave them possession of the important position of Les Eparges, dominating the plain of the Woivre. At the same time heavy losses were inflicted on the enemy. During these operations the Germans not infrequently pumped burning oil and pitch on to the French trenches, and prisoners captured from them announced that they were making preparations for the use of poison gas. During the middle of April the British Army was engaged in violent fighting near Ypres and St. Eloi, as a result of which they captured a hill which became famous in the official reports of the day under the name of Hill 60. Vigorous counter-attacks both here and at Les Eparges failed to wrest from the Allies the advantages which they had won. The first authenticated instance of the use of asphyxiating gases by the Germans was during the fighting in the Ypres district. The Germans freely accused the French and British of having already used these gases, but it was clearly shown that there was no truth in the allegations. Toward the end of April the Germans attacked the Allies to the north of Ypres ; and by using a very large quantity of asphyxiating bombs forced the French to retire some distance. Little doubt was entertained at the time that the gases mainly used were chlorine and bromine. In the course of the German attack the Canadian division was compelled to retreat in conformity with the movement of the line, and lost four guns, which, however, they recaptured a few hours later by a brilliant and daring advance.

The use of poison fumes was contrary to the provisions of the Hague convention which had been signed by the Germans ; and the deaths caused by them were of a very painful character. The mode of employing these fumes was to select a moment when the wind was blowing towards the enemy's trenches and then to release a cloud of poisonous vapour ; after allowing sufficient time for the fumes to take full effect on the troops facing them, the Germans charged forward : and in the fighting before Ypres succeeded in penetrating the gap left by the compulsory withdrawal of the troops from the region of the fumes. The portion of country captured by this expedient was not very large ; the Allies quickly recovered, methods were found of combating the use of the gas and the line was reconstituted in front of Ypres without any serious loss of strategical position. During the second week in May the Germans continued to make assaults upon the Ypres

position but without any further success. Strong attacks were made by the British 1st Army, and ground gained near Fromelles, while at the same time the French made some advance in the sector north of Arras. The 1st Army broke the enemy's line over the greater part of a two-mile front and close upon a thousand prisoners were taken. This battle in the neighbourhood of Festubert marked the end of the second German attempt upon Ypres. Soon afterwards the French in the district north of Arras succeeded in capturing the village of Ablin St. Nazaire and fighting in this region continued for some time to be violent. In particular a very difficult piece of country which had been strongly fortified by the Germans and was known as the Labyrinth was gradually taken possession of by the French.

At the beginning of June fighting went on at intervals in various parts of the line with fluctuating success; at one point an attack by the Germans cost them 2,000 in dead and 250 prisoners; and in the same region six machine-guns were captured from the enemy in three days.

Operations in the air continued to be carried on intermittently. On June 15, twenty-three aeroplanes bombarded Karlsruhe, the capital of the grand duchy of Baden, as a reprisal for the bombardment by the Germans of open French and British towns. One hundred and thirty projectiles were dropped, particularly on the castle, the arms factory and the railway station, and many fires were seen to break out. During June the French continued to make gradual progress north of Arras and in Alsace, the fighting being especially severe around Souchez. Vast quantities of ammunition were expended in these attacks, nearly 300,000 shells being fired by the French artillery in two days. On the last day of the month the Crown Prince made a determined assault against the French positions in the Argonne. The operations began by an uninterrupted bombardment lasting for three days; the battle then developed into desperate fighting at close quarters and only flickered out after four days into small local infantry actions. The Germans claimed to have captured in this battle 2,556 prisoners, and in a subsequent assault another 3,000 prisoners and several guns, but the French appeared to have successfully maintained their front.

In the latter half of July the main sphere of activity was in the Vosges, where a number of different positions were captured by the French after severe fighting. In this fighting aircraft took a very important part. One of the largest air-raids undertaken was on August 9 when twenty-eight aeroplanes dropped 164 shells of all calibres on the station and factory of Saarbrücken.

At the beginning of August fighting broke out again north and east of Ypres. The Germans had captured some British trenches at Hooze on July 30, but these were all retaken together with 150 prisoners. In the middle of the month, further advances were made by the French, north-west of Souchez, and the French

line which had here been re-entrant was thus straightened out. The end of August was marked by a number of air-raids which were carried out by British and French airmen on many different railway stations behind the German lines. During the first half of September stubborn fighting took place in the Vosges, in which the Germans made abundant use of asphyxiating shells and liquid fire. At two points they succeeded in occupying the first line trenches of the French, but from both they were ejected by powerful counter-attacks. Air-raids still continued to be carried out on Treves and other German towns; perhaps the most daring of these was an attack upon Stuttgart on September 22, when thirty shells were dropped on the palace of the King of Württemberg and the railway station of the town. The squadron of aeroplanes which performed this achievement had to travel in all nearly 300 miles.

MILITARY OPERATIONS IN THE EAST.

If the campaign in the West exhibited no features during the summer of any special interest or significance, the case was quite otherwise with the campaign in the East. For several weeks after the fall of Przemyśl, the offensive remained in the hands of the Russians and they used it in the development of a threat upon Hungary. This was only checked by the powerful German concentration in Western Galicia which was destined to drive the Russian troops far out of Austrian territory.

Early in March the Russians in the principal chain of the Carpathians held only the region of the Dukla Pass, the other passes to the eastward being still in the hands of the enemy. In order to obtain the mastery of the outlets into the Hungarian Plain the Russians decided to make their principal attack upon the Austrian line between the Lupkow and the Uzsok Passes, where a large Austrian Army had been concentrated for the purpose of relieving Przemyśl. At the same time an auxiliary attack was carried out farther to the west between Lupkow and Bartfeld. The principal attack was developed during the last week in March, when the Austrians set up the most desperate resistance. Nevertheless the Russians had captured within two or three weeks the principal chain of the Carpathians for about seventy miles long. Between March 19 and April 12 they took prisoners nearly 70,000 men and 900 officers, capturing also thirty guns and 200 machine-guns.

This battle left the Russians in commanding positions in the Uzsok Valley, and from these positions the Austro-German troops made great but unsuccessful efforts to dislodge them. On the night of April 21-22 the enemy took the offensive in this region, but were repulsed everywhere with heavy losses. Further attacks during the nights of April 24, 25 and 26 were equally

futile. The fighting which then took place, however, marked the end of the Russian offensive, and the highest point reached by the tide of their advance. A new German threat caused them to modify their plans and commence the great retreat which continued throughout the summer.

So early as the middle of April the Russians had been aware of a large German concentration in the neighbourhood of Cracow, and on May 2 and 3 the storm burst on the Russian troops defending the line of the Dunajec. The Germans followed their usual tactics of advancing in massed formations, and they began by smashing up the Russian centre with an artillery fire of unprecedented magnitude. The Russians, who it was believed had not a sufficient supply of ammunition to cope with so furious an attack, retreated rapidly to the line of the San and in about ten days the Germans had re-occupied nearly half the whole province of Galicia and had approached to within twenty-five miles of Przemyśl. This victorious advance moreover compelled the Russians to retreat from the positions which they had captured in the Carpathians. In Eastern Galicia the Russians were still able for a time to pursue a successful offensive, and on May 10 alone succeeded in taking 5,000 prisoners; but the importance of this movement was altogether overshadowed by the main operations in the central part of Galicia. In the middle of May the Russians held a strong line from the Eastern Carpathians to Przemyśl and from there along the San to the Vistula, Przemyśl being the pivot of the line. Very large numbers of prisoners were taken from the Russians in the course of their retreat.

During this great offensive in Galicia, the Germans initiated simultaneously an attack on the Baltic provinces of Russia, which progressed with remarkable rapidity. On May 10 a battle took place at Shavli which, however, failed to arrest the progress of the enemy. About the same time they occupied Libau on the sea-coast.

The Russians were not able to hold for long their new line on the San. At various points the Austro-Germans succeeded in crossing the river. A powerful bombardment was carried out against the western forts of Przemyśl; various places to the north of that town were captured and before very long the fortress was altogether encircled, ultimately falling into the hands of the enemy on June 3. It had, however, already been evacuated by the Russian troops with the exception of a rear-guard, and the last batteries had been removed.

Meanwhile General von Linsingen was advancing with a very large army of Germans and Austrians in the eastern part of Galicia, and Stanislaw was taken during the middle of June. For nearly a fortnight after the fall of Przemyśl there was little change in the relative positions of the armies on the San, but about the middle of the month a new German effort was made

in the direction of Lemberg; von Mackensen, who was then in command of the allied army, delivered a general assault on June 13 on a front of about forty-four miles north of Przemyśl, took the Russian positions along the entire length of this line, and captured 16,000 prisoners. Farther to the east the Russians were more successful; and in a three days' battle on the Dniester in the region of Zurawno, lasting from June 8 to June 10, they captured 348 officers and 15,431 soldiers, with seventy-eight machine-guns and seventeen cannon. The more important sphere of action, however, was that which lay between Przemyśl and Lemberg. The enemy succeeded in pushing forward both to the north and south of Lemberg, and the Austrian Army of General Böhm-Ermolli finally entered it on June 22. Little war booty was obtained in the city; nevertheless the recapture of the Galician capital produced an outburst of jubilation in Germany and Austria, and the Kaiser and Austrian Emperor exchanged long telegrams of congratulation over the event. The Russians retreated rapidly to the line of the Bug, about twenty-five miles to the north-east; towards the south-east they fell back on the Gnila Lipa, a tributary of the Dniester, running approximately north and south.

It was at first supposed that the enemy would endeavour to continue his advance eastwards against this line, but it soon became apparent that he proposed to strike in a northerly direction towards the railway line of Ivangorod, Lublin and Cholm which was the main line of communication with Warsaw from the south. Great armies were concentrated in this direction, consisting partly of Germans under von Mackensen and partly of Austrians under the Archduke Joseph Ferdinand. The Galician frontier was soon passed and the enemy's front then stretched across the Government of Lublin from the Vistula to the Bug, a width of 100 miles. The great importance of the Lublin-Cholm railway determined the Russians to make a vigorous defence of it; and east of Krasnik they succeeded in inflicting a sharp defeat on the Austrian Army. The left wing of the Austro-German forces was obliged momentarily to retreat, leaving over 22,000 prisoners and many guns in the hands of the Russians. The check, however, was only momentary. In the middle of July the enemy captured Krasnostaw on the Wieprz and had approached very close to the important railway.

Meanwhile a corresponding advance was carried out by the Germans under von Hindenburg on the northern part of the line extending from the Vistula to the Baltic, one of the chief objects of this advance apparently being to cut the main line which maintained communication between Warsaw and Petrograd. As a result of these advances both north and south, Warsaw occupied the extreme point of a salient, and its position became so precarious that all hope of saving it was soon abandoned. In addi-

tion to the threat upon its communications north and south the Germans advanced directly upon it from the west, and the Russians completed as speedily as possible their preparations for evacuation of the town. At the end of July a long piece of the southern railway between Ivangorod and Cholm was held by the enemy; large reinforcements were brought up to the Narew front on the north-east; and finally the great fortress passed into the hands of the enemy on August 5, under the command of Prince Leopold of Bavaria. The Russian retreat from Warsaw continued very rapidly and in good order; the pursuing army of Prince Leopold advanced at the average rate of seven miles a day and von Mackensen simultaneously moved upon the retreating army from the south, but was beaten back by General Alexeieff. In order to delay the pursuit, the Russians had left garrisons in the fortresses of Novo-Georgievsk and Kovno, the former of which held out until August 19, and the latter until August 17. The resistance of Kovno was of great importance, for that powerful fortress guarded the trunk railway running from East Prussia to Vilna and Minsk. In these two fortresses the Germans claimed to have captured over 2,000 guns. Various other fortified places were abandoned one after another in the Russian retreat; Sierok was taken on August 7, and Lomza on August 10, Brest-Litovsk was occupied by von Mackensen on August 25, and the fortress of Grodno which guarded the line of the Upper Niemen on September 2. The main turning movement of the Germans, however, cannot be said to have succeeded, for no large portion of the Russian Armies was captured. The Vilna-Petrograd railway was not cut until September 12; and Vilna itself remained in the hands of the Russians until the 18th. A great attempt was made by von Hindenburg with 50,000 cavalry to intervene on the Russian line of retreat east of Vilna, but this force was incapable of arresting the Russian movement to Minsk.

On September 8 it was announced that the Czar himself was about to take command of the main Russian Army, with the distinguished General Alexeieff as his Chief of Staff, and that the Grand Duke Nicholas was to become Viceroy of the Caucasus and Commander-in-Chief of that region. The Russian line now ran through the Pripet marshes and here several successful actions were fought. The Austrians advanced through Galicia along the roads to Kieff, and captured the fortress of Luck on August 31. Here, however, they were attacked by General Ivanoff who drove them out with a loss of nearly forty guns and over 40,000 prisoners. But the fortress was finally lost once more before the end of September.

Meanwhile the Germans had been slowly advancing against Riga, which was defended by General Ruszky. On September 2 several bridges across the Dvina were taken by storm. The final success of the great German offensive was the capture by von

Mackensen of the important town of Pinsk on September 15. At the end of September the great drive had come to an end, and the Germans took up the offensive in other directions, recalling large numbers of troops from the Russian front. Their line now ran close to Riga, Dünaburg, Minsk, and Rovno; and about 125,000 square miles of the Russian Empire was occupied by the Austro-German forces, that is to say an area more than half the size of Germany itself.

THE ITALIAN WAR.

On May 23 Italy declared war on Austria. At 3.30 that afternoon the Austrian Ambassador at Rome was handed his passports, and on the same day Germany recalled Prince Bülow, although there was no declaration of war either then or later between Italy and Germany. The Commander-in-Chief of the Italian Armies in the field was General Count Luigi Cadorna, and his chief of staff was General Porro. The first act of war took place on the day following the declaration by an attempt of Austrian aircraft to attack the Arsenal at Venice and other points of the Italian Adriatic coast. In the course of the first week the Italians attacked the Austrian Island of Porto Buso, sinking some ships and bringing forty-seven prisoners back to Venice. The Italian Armies soon occupied an important chain of positions along the western and eastern frontiers of the Trentino, on the slopes of the Carnic Alps and across the eastern frontier along the western bank of the Isonzo. The Austrians were on the left bank of that river, and all round the frontier the campaign assumed almost from the first the characteristics of trench warfare which had now become so familiar in other parts of Europe. The main object of the Italian strategy was to ring round the Southern Tyrol and to occupy the passes, especially on the eastern side, from which the Austrians might wish to descend upon Italy and attack the communications of the main Italian Armies on the Isonzo. This river, which runs a little way to the east of the Italian frontier, constitutes, especially when in flood, a serious barrier to the passage of any army. The Italians nevertheless succeeded in crossing it in the Caporetto district and in capturing Monte Nero about seven miles from Tolmino. Here, however, they found themselves in the presence of strong Austrian forces and were unable to push their advance any farther. In the middle of June the Italian heavy guns began to bombard Malborghetto, one of the pivots of the Austrian defences between the Carnic Alps and the Upper Isonzo. At the same time Monfalcone, an important centre of supply for the Austrian troops, was occupied by the Italians, who approached here within twenty miles of Trieste. In the middle of July there was violent fighting on the southern part of the Isonzo line, but the Italians were unable to effect any further

advance. On the 18th some armoured cruisers bombarded the railway near Cattaro but were subsequently themselves attacked by submarines and one of them, the *Giuseppe Garibaldi*, sunk. On July 26 severe fighting occurred on the Carso plateau, as a result of which the Italians took 3,200 prisoners, including a Lieutenant-Colonel and forty-one officers, five machine-guns, two small bomb-throwers, numerous rifles, ammunition and supplies and war material. The great difficulties under which fighting was conducted were illustrated by an incident on August 10. In the Ortler Range between the Upper Valleys of the Adda and the Adige, an Italian detachment marched from Capaunas Milano in sections roped together, and crossed the Camoni Pass of 10,000 feet. It then scaled the ice-clad Tuckettspitz (11,200 feet) and surprised a party of the enemy. From there it advanced to the Hintere Madatschspitze, held by an enemy detachment which it attacked and dispersed.

Meanwhile no events of importance were occurring on the Trentino frontier. The fighting was limited to artillery duels and to skirmishes between the troops as the Italians gradually pushed forward along the valleys between the mountains. Big guns were drawn up to almost inaccessible summits but no genuine offensive appeared possible. Both sides continued to watch the passes; but Nature, fortified by artifice, rendered them almost impossible of transit. During the remainder of the autumn nothing occurred to relieve the stationary character of the campaign.

THE DARDANELLES.

Perhaps the most important event of the war which occurred during the summer months was the landing of an Army in the Dardanelles. High hopes had been entertained that the combined forces of the Army and Navy would succeed in forcing their way past the forts which guarded the Straits. These hopes were greatly encouraged by the success of the very difficult and costly operation of landing the troops: few persons in England then doubted that Constantinople would be at the mercy of the Navy before the summer was over. As time went on and the Army failed to make any material advance, the prevailing optimism gradually changed to despondency; and criticism of the Government with reference to the matter gradually became more frequent and ominous.

The despatch of troops to the Gallipoli peninsula was kept officially a secret though well known to most people in England. In fact it might be said that the only persons who appeared to know nothing about it were the editors of the daily newspapers. The despatch of the Army was well known at all events to the enemy, who proceeded to make his arrangements for intercepting

the troops during their transport. These arrangements, however, were comparatively ineffective. On April 17 a Turkish torpedo-boat fired three torpedoes at the transport *Manitou*, all of which missed; about fifty men from the *Manitou* were lost owing to the capsizing of a boat in the water, but the torpedo-boat was chased by the British cruiser *Minerva* and by destroyers, which ran her ashore and destroyed her on the coast of Chios. On the same day an unfortunate mishap occurred in the Dardanelles. The British submarine E 15, while attempting a difficult reconnaissance of the Kephez minefield, ran ashore on Kephez point, and the officers and crew were made prisoners. There was considerable danger that the submarine might fall into the enemy's hands in a serviceable condition; long-range fire of the battleships next day failed to destroy her, but in the course of the following night two picket boats from H.M.S. *Triumph* and H.M.S. *Majestic*, manned by volunteer crews, ran the gauntlet of a very heavy Turkish fire, and got near enough to the submarine to torpedo it and render it useless. The picket boat of the *Majestic* was sunk, but the crew were saved by the other boat, and the only casualty was one man who died of his wounds.

The British Army destined for the Gallipoli Peninsula was under the command of Sir Ian Hamilton, who had left London with his general staff on March 13, and arrived at the Island of Tenedos on March 17 in time to witness the amphibious battle between warships and land fortresses which took place the following day. Sir Ian at once perceived that a large force would be required to enable the Fleet effectively to force the Dardanelles, and he ordered nearly all the transports to proceed to the Egyptian ports, where he would be able to work out in detail their distribution for the projected landing. General d'Amade who was in command of the French expeditionary force did likewise. These arrangements were not completed till the end of the third week in April; during the afternoon of the 24th the troops which had then arrived at Tenedos were transferred to the warships and fleet sweepers, on which they were to approach the shore; and at about midnight they started off on their expedition. The landing was planned to take place at five separate beaches at an early hour in the morning after half-an-hour's bombardment by the Fleet. The whole arrangement had been worked out in the smallest details and was favoured by perfect weather conditions. The bombardment began as soon as it was light, and the troops succeeded in effecting a landing on all the five beaches selected. No sign of life was to be seen upon the shore, and it appeared at first that the landing was to be unopposed. But the moment the boats touched the ground they were received by a tornado of bullets which caused frightful casualties among the troops. The first day's fighting was of a most severe and critical character. Within twenty-four hours one of the regiments, the King's Own

Scottish Borderers, had been reduced to half its numbers and had to be re-embarked under conditions of great difficulty; but when night fell the British troops occupied the tip of the Gallipoli peninsula. At the same time as the main landing already described, there was another landing farther to the north by the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps. This landing was very successfully achieved at a place called Gaba Tepe and some advance was made before the fighting settled down to trench conditions.

The general advance was begun on the morning of the 28th, but it was soon discovered that the peninsula was a network of barbed wire entanglements and entrenchments which presented almost insuperable obstacles to further progress; and for the remainder of the summer there is little variation to be recorded from the ordinary features of trench warfare. The French corps which had landed at Kum Kale, the southern promontory at the entrance to the Dardanelles, remained ashore for one day and then re-embarked after capturing 500 prisoners. They were subsequently disembarked once more on the shores of Gallipoli, where they continued to hold part of the line stretching across the tip of the peninsula. The British casualties during the first ten days of fighting were very heavy; 177 officers and 1,190 other ranks were killed, 412 officers and 7,807 other ranks were wounded, thirteen officers and 3,580 other ranks were missing, a total of 13,979. By the end of May the total casualties suffered by both naval and military forces in the Dardanelles had mounted up to 38,636, a larger figure than the total British casualties, exclusive of disease, during the whole of the Boer War.

The landing of the Army was not accompanied by any events of importance on the sea. From time to time Turkish warships from Nagara tried to intervene, but they were kept off by the powerful *Queen Elizabeth*, the latest of the new super-Dreadnoughts. The Russian Black Sea Fleet occasionally shelled the fortified works on the Bosphorus, particularly during the disembarkation of the troops. An unfortunate incident occurred on May 12 when H.M.S. *Goliath* was torpedoed by Turkish destroyers with a loss of over 500 of the crew. The *Goliath* was a pre-Dreadnought battleship, built in 1900, and had a displacement of 12,950 tons. Another naval misfortune occurred on May 26 when H.M.S. *Triumph* was sunk by a submarine off the shore of the Gallipoli peninsula while supporting the Australian and New Zealand forces.

During the latter part of May there was from time to time severe fighting of a local character. On the night of the 18th the Turkish forces made determined attacks against the Australian and New Zealand corps which were all repulsed with heavy loss, their casualties being estimated at over 7,000. On May 21 the first French division made considerable progress. On the 22nd

the Indian brigade were engaged, while on the 23rd there was a suspension of hostilities opposite the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (known as Anzac on account of their initials) in order that the Turks might bury their dead, 3,000 of whom lay close to the British trenches.

From the end of April British submarines had been making incursions into the Sea of Marmora and E14 was the first to achieve a success there. On April 29 she sank a transport; on May 3 a gun-boat; on May 10 a very large transport full of troops; on May 13 she compelled a small steamer to run aground, and returned finally on May 18. A less fortunate incursion on April 30 resulted in the loss of AE 2 of the Royal Australian Navy, which was sunk with the capture of most of her crew while endeavouring to enter the Sea of Marmora. Another naval loss occurred on May 27 when H.M.S. *Majestic* was torpedoed and sunk while supporting the Army. Next day a vigorous attack by the Turks on the British and French was repulsed with a loss of about 2,000 men. On the night of June 3, another attack was launched against the French position and again repulsed; and on the morning of June 4 Sir Ian Hamilton ordered a general attack on the Turkish trenches in the southern area of the Gallipoli Peninsula, preceded as usual by heavy bombardment by all guns; and assisted by battleships, cruisers and destroyers. The enemy's trenches were captured all along the line except where the bombardment had failed to destroy the heavy wire entanglements. The advance, however, could not in all cases be maintained, partly on account of the exposure of the flanks of the troops which had gone farthest, partly on account of the heavy counter-attacks which were immediately launched by the Turks. The net result was a progress of 500 yards on a front of nearly three miles, two lines of Turkish trenches being comprised in the ground captured. The right and left of the line were unable to conform to the advance on account of the strength of the Turkish positions on the flanks; and it was not till the 21st that the 2nd French division under General Gouraud succeeded in storming the first and second lines of trenches on their front. On June 27 the British left carried by assault at certain points four Turkish lines, and advanced about a mile, capturing 180 prisoners. Further severe fighting took place from June 28 to July 2, between which dates the Turks were estimated by Sir Ian Hamilton to have lost 5,150 killed and 15,000 wounded. On July 5 the Turks made a further big attempt to drive the Allies into the sea, but it was quite as ineffectual as their efforts in the beginning of May. Throughout July there occurred at intervals minor attacks by one or other side such as characterise trench warfare in general. Towards the end of the month the French lost a submarine which had departed to operate in the Sea of Marmora, but otherwise no event of any importance occurred.

At the end of the first week in August the Turks announced the loss of one of their battleships, the *Hairredin Barbarossa*, which had been sunk by a submarine. Other Turkish vessels were sunk at about the same time. Against these achievements, however, has to be set the sinking of a large British transport, the *Royal Edward*, by an enemy submarine in the *Ægean* Sea on August 14. The transport had on board thirty-two military officers and 1,350 troops, consisting mainly of reinforcements for the 29th division. Together with the ship's crew those on board numbered more than 1,600, of whom not more than 600 were saved.

On August 6 a new army was landed at Suvla Bay, a few miles north of the Australian and New Zealand troops at Anzac. An attempt was made to capture the summit of Sari Bair and Chunuk Bair ridges by simultaneous assault of the army at Anzac and that which had just landed at Suvla. The Australian and New Zealand troops succeeded in reaching this objective, but unfortunately the attack from Suvla did not make the progress that was counted on; and the troops from Anzac were obliged to withdraw from the dominating positions which they had captured with so much cost. The attack from Suvla was brought to a standstill after an advance of about two and a half miles. Sufficient ground was captured, however, to enable the two armies to come in touch with one another, and the combined length of line which they now jointly held was about twelve miles. Simultaneously with this attack on Sari Bair, another attack was launched by the troops at the end of the peninsula against the enemy's lines. Notwithstanding severe and continuous fighting, no definite result was obtained beyond the capture of a certain amount of new territory.

The only other event to be noted before the end of the summer was the loss of the submarine E 7, of which the last news was heard on September 4. At the end of September the fighting in the Gallipoli Peninsula had again resumed the form of uneventful trench-work. The campaign showed little signs of progress, and provided small relief to the pessimistic section of public opinion in England.

CHAPTER III.

THE AUTUMN AND WINTER.

THE latter part of the year witnessed great changes in the relative importance of the events occurring in the different areas of war. The great German drive in Russia had come to an end, and the campaign in that quarter became practically stationary. A new campaign was instituted by Germany and Austria against

Serbia, and for a time the operations there commanded the chief attention of the Governments of Europe. In the Dardanelles the event of chief importance was the general recognition of the failure of the expedition. But at the end of the year it was gradually becoming apparent that the main theatre of operations in the future was likely to be on the Western front. The great offensive undertaken by the allied troops in September gave an indication of the direction in which the future efforts of the allied Armies were likely to be made. At sea there were no events of any importance; and indeed so long as all hostile vessels remained in harbour the only task remaining for the Navy was that of watching and guarding against a sudden attack. Of the war in the air there is even less to be said. The onset of wet weather made voyages by Zeppelins very hazardous enterprises; and with the approach of winter air raids upon the English coast altogether ceased. A portion of the London area was attacked on October 13; thirty-two were killed and ninety-five injured; a few fires were caused, but the material damage was small. At the same time the eastern counties were visited and the total number of casualties caused was 142. This was the last raid attempted by the Germans in the course of the year.

THE NAVAL OPERATIONS.

British submarines continued to operate in the Baltic, and succeeded in destroying a considerable number of German steamers. The German Admiralty complained that the mines and barrier nets which they were able to place in the Sound between Denmark and Sweden could not be extended into the territorial waters within two miles of the shores of those countries, and therefore that it was very difficult to prevent the submarines from passing.

On October 11 a new Commander-in-Chief was appointed to the French Naval Forces. Vice-Admiral Boué de Lapeyrère, being seriously ill, was relieved of his command by his own request, and was succeeded by Vice-Admiral Dartige du Fournet who had first commanded the Syrian squadron and subsequently the Dardanelles squadron. Rear-Admiral Guépratte was promoted to Vice-Admiral and appointed to the command of the French naval forces in the Dardanelles.

Ten days later an important change of policy was announced by Order in Council dated October 20, under which Article 57 of the Declaration of London was abandoned. This article provided that the neutral or enemy character of a vessel was determined by the flag she was entitled to fly; and the reason for its abandonment was that the nationality of the owner was often not indicated by the nationality of the flag; in fact ships were often flying the neutral flag though belonging in reality either wholly

or partly to the enemy. Hence the decision to revert to the old prize law under which even if an enemy only had a part interest in a ship that part could be condemned and its value realised by various methods known to the courts.

A British submarine in the Baltic near Libau scored a success on October 23 by sinking the large German cruiser *Prince Adalbert* of 9,050 tons and a complement of 557. The Naval General Staff of Berlin admitted that it had only been possible to save a small portion of the crew. The end of October witnessed several misfortunes to British vessels. During the night of 28th to 29th H.M.S. *Hythe*, auxiliary sweeper, was sunk after being in collision with another of His Majesty's ships off the Gallipoli Peninsula; 250 men were on board in addition to the crew; of these one warrant officer and nine men were lost, and two military officers and 143 men. About the same time H.M.S. *Argyll* was wrecked off the east coast of Scotland, but without the loss of any lives. A further collision in the Straits of Gibraltar on November 1 resulted in the loss of a torpedo-boat with two officers and nine men.

A success was scored by a British submarine in the Baltic on November 7, when the small German cruiser *Undine* was sunk off the south coast of Sweden while convoying a German steam ferry. At the same time the announcement was made that the British transport *Ramazan*, carrying about 380 Indian troops, had been sunk by shell fire from an enemy submarine off the Island of Antikythera in the Ægean Sea, and that only seventy-five had been saved, together with twenty-eight of the crew. On November 5 a further mishap occurred in the Eastern Mediterranean, when H.M. armed boarding steamer *Tara* was sunk by two enemy submarines with a loss of thirty-four of the crew.

A far more serious event from the political point of view took place on November 7, when the steamer *Ancona*, sailing from Italy to New York, was sunk off Cape Carbonara by a large submarine flying the Austrian flag. The submarine first fired about 100 shots at the *Ancona* which was then torpedoed with a loss of about 200 persons. As some of these were American citizens an acute situation was produced between Austria and the United States, for an account of which reference should be made to the histories of those countries. Other losses in the Mediterranean about the same time included H.M. torpedo-boat destroyer *Louis* and also the *Californian*, the *Glan Macalister* and the *Moorina*, ranging from 4,800 to 6,200 tons. The Trinity House yacht *Irene* was also sunk with a loss of twenty-two of her crew. The transport *Mercian* was likewise attacked by gunfire, and although she reached port safely twenty-three men were killed, fifty wounded and thirty missing.

Hostile submarines had been kept out of the Channel with great success, but on November 17 the hospital ship *Anglia*

struck a mine when crossing from France to England and about eighty of the persons on board were drowned.

In the middle of November various other small losses were announced, including that of the transport *Southland* in the Ægean Sea (which, however, was not sunk), and of the submarine E 20 which had entered the Sea of Marmora and not been heard of since October 30. The Turks announced, however, that they had taken prisoners three of her officers and six of her crew. On November 9 the steamer *Firenze* belonging to the Italian shipping company was sunk by an Austrian submarine with a loss of about twenty lives.

A successful attack was made by a British aeroplane upon a German submarine on November 28; a bomb was dropped upon it off the Belgian coast and the submarine was seen to sink within a few minutes. No further naval event occurred until the middle of December when a British submarine in the Baltic sank the small German cruiser *Bremen* and a torpedo-boat accompanying it.

The end of the year brought two or three further events. The French mail steamer *Ville de la Ciotat* was torpedoed off Crete on Christmas Eve, without warning, by a submarine flying the Austrian flag, and sank in a quarter of an hour with a loss of eighty lives. On December 21 the Japanese steamer and cargo liner *Yusaka Maru*, of 11,000 tons, was sunk near Port Said, but all the passengers and crew were picked up by a French gun-boat and thus saved. On the 30th the armoured cruiser *Natal* blew up for some unexplained cause while in harbour with a loss of about 300 officers and men. On the same date the P & O ss. *Persia* was sunk by a torpedo-boat about forty miles south of Crete with a loss of nearly 200 lives.

From the foregoing record it will be seen that the naval losses during the last few months of the year were altogether devoid of importance, except for the regrettable loss of life which they involved. So effectual had been the methods adopted for dealing with German submarines that their attacks upon British commerce had almost come to an end. British submarines, on the other hand, had succeeded in scoring several successes against German warships and commerce in the Baltic. The close of the year found the allied Navies in absolute and undisputed control of all the waters of the earth.

THE MILITARY OPERATIONS IN THE WEST.

The uneventful character of the summer campaign culminated in the autumn in a great offensive undertaken against the Germans both by the French and British Armies. For many weeks past munitions had been accumulated in preparation for a grand attack, and on September 25 the great battles began which tem-

porarily broke through the German line in two places. The British attack took place south of the La Bassée Canal to the east of Grenay and Vermelles. On that day the trenches of the enemy were captured on a front of over five miles and his lines were penetrated in some places to a distance of 4,000 yards. The area captured included the western outskirts of Hulluch, the village of Loos with the mining works around it and Hill 70. Further fighting took place north of the La Bassée Canal and near Hooze, but these led to no advance and were intended only as subsidiary operations for the purpose of drawing off the enemy's reserves. On the following days determined counter-attacks east and north-east of Loos were repulsed, ground near Hulluch which had been recaptured by the enemy was taken once again and some further progress was made east and south of Loos. The lines captured in these engagements were exceptionally strong, consisting of a double front line, including two large works named by the enemy the Hohenzollern and Kaiser Wilhelm redoubts. These consisted of a network of trenches with bomb-proof shelters several hundred yards in extent. On September 29 the enemy made several attacks on the new British position north-west of Hulluch, but they were attended with no success except at one spot where 150 yards of trench were lost. During these battles the British aircraft were very active. Seventeen air combats were reported, in only one of which was a British machine worsted. The general attack upon the Germans was timed simultaneously with a naval bombardment of Zeebrugge by British warships on September 25.

The success attained by the British troops in these battles was the subject of a congratulatory telegram from the King to Sir John French on September 30, in which the King said that he recognised that this strenuous and determined fighting was but the prelude to further deeds and greater victories. The main attack on the morning of the 25th was delivered by the 1st and 4th Corps, and to these were subsequently added the 11th Corps (which was in general reserve), the third cavalry division, and finally the 28th division. The subsidiary attacks were carried out by the 3rd and Indian Corps and the troops of the 2nd army; and assistance was also rendered by the operations of the 5th Corps, east of Ypres. At the end of September 3,000 prisoners had been taken from the Germans together with twenty-five guns, many machine-guns and a quantity of war material. It has to be noted, however, that on October 3 the enemy succeeded in recapturing the greater part of the Hohenzollern redoubt.

The British attack was accompanied by another great offensive on the part of the French in the Champagne district which likewise was attended with conspicuous success. On September 25 the French troops penetrated the German lines on a front of fifteen miles to a depth varying from a half to two and a half miles.

The whole village of Souchez was captured at the same time and advance was made in an easterly direction towards Givenchy. In Champagne on the evening of the 27th the French troops stood on a wide front before the second line of the German defences, and counter-attacks were everywhere repulsed with heavy loss. Three hundred officers were made prisoners in Champagne, and by the end of the month the total number of prisoners taken by the French Armies reached the figure of 23,000, together with vast quantities of field and trench material of all kinds, which the enemy was obliged to abandon in his retreat. Slight further progress continued to be made east and south-east of Souchez, and more prisoners and machine-guns were taken, but by the beginning of October the impetus of the great offensive was spent and there was a gradual return to the passive siege warfare of the summer. The greatness of the victory won by the French is indicated by the fact that during the last week in September the number of guns which they captured on the Champagne front alone amounted to 121. A telegram of congratulation was sent by King George to the President of the French Republic on September 30 in which he expressed his admiration of the magnificent exploits of the French Army and congratulated the President as well as General Joffre and the whole French nation on the great success achieved by the French troops since the beginning of the joint offensive.

The progress of the French during the first half of October was chiefly in the neighbourhood of the village of Tahure in Champagne, which they had captured during their main attack. South-east of that point they succeeded on October 8 in gaining a footing in a formidable work known as the Trapeze, and captured several trenches and two redoubts within a salient retained by the enemy in front of his second line of resistance. The counter-attacks of the Germans at Tahure Hill and elsewhere were delivered in successive waves of infantry which were mown down by the combined fire of the French or British infantry, machine-guns and artillery. Nearly every day the reports indicated the capture of a hundred or more prisoners from the enemy. On October 13 the British troops succeeded momentarily by the aid of a cloud of smoke and gas in capturing over a thousand yards of trench west and south of Hulluch, but these positions could not be retained, although other captures of individual trenches here and there were successfully consolidated. By this time the enemy had reinforced his troops on the British front by forty-eight battalions, including a division of the guard. The area permanently occupied was 7,000 yards in length and 3,200 yards deep at its deepest point. The new front diverged from the old British line at a point about 1,200 yards south-west of the southern edge of Auchy-lez-la Bassée and ran through the Hohenzollern redoubt along the Lens-la Bassée road. Farther south it passed east of

Loos church from which it bent south and joined the old line again at a point 1,200 yards south of the church.

At the end of September Sir Archibald Murray was appointed a new member of the Army Council in succession to Lieutenant-General J. W. Murray, and at the same time he took over the work of Chief of the Imperial General Staff at Army head-quarters in London. The composition of the Army Council was now as follows: Lord Kitchener, Lieutenant-General Sir H. E. Sclater, Lieutenant-General Sir J. S. Cowans, Lieutenant-General Sir Archibald Murray, Sir S. B. von Donop, the Right Hon. H. J. Tennant and Mr. H. W. Forster.

In the middle of October fighting took place in Lorraine, where the enemy had obtained some advantages a few days earlier. The chief of these was the capture of the summit of Hartmannsweilerkopf, but this point was recaptured with additional ground on October 16. On the 19th a vigorous attack was made by the enemy east of Rheims after a careful preparation by the usual artillery bombardment and to the accompaniment of asphyxiating shells and chlorine gas. The first line of the French was penetrated for a moment, but vigorous counter-attacks drove the enemy back at every point to his original trenches.

During the latter half of October the King paid a visit to the Army in France and on the 22nd passed the day at Havre where he inspected the English camps. A few days later he met the President of the French Republic, and with him reviewed some of the British troops at the front, afterwards paying a visit to the French Armies. On his departure he addressed to the soldiers of France an expression of his admiration for their fine military virtues and offered them his warmest congratulations and best wishes. At the conclusion of his tour an unfortunate accident occurred. The King had just finished the second of two reviews of troops representing Corps of the 1st Army on October 28, when his horse, frightened by the cheers of the men, reared and fell, and His Majesty was severely bruised. Although the injuries were not such as to leave any permanent disablement, the King was obliged to go to bed and abandon the remainder of his tour in France. He was able to cross the Channel on November 1, arriving at Buckingham Palace in the evening; improvement soon set in, but it was some time before recovery was complete.

While the King was in France, a determined attack was made by the Germans on the French line in Western Champagne. It was preceded by a bombardment of three hours, during which shells of every description poured upon the first French line, while a curtain of asphyxiating shell was formed between the first and second lines. The infantry attack which followed was heralded by a huge wave of gas, but the machine-guns and 75's mowed down one line after another of the enemy's troops. For a moment one German attack captured the first advance trenches, but after

a very few hours they were ejected and the French proved that everywhere they were able to maintain the upper hand. At the end of the month the struggle was chiefly concentrated in a defensive work called La Courtine, although the Germans never ceased the bombardment of all the trenches which they had lost on the Champagne front.

The comparative unimportance of these contests was evinced by the fact that at the end of October General Joffre was able to pay a visit to England. He attended a War Council on October 29 at 10 Downing Street, with the Prime Minister, Lord Kitchener, Mr. Lloyd George and Mr. Balfour, with various English and French Staff Officers, and returned to France again the following day. Throughout the first half of November violent fighting continued to take place in Champagne where the Germans still concentrated their main efforts against the French.

During this month no events of outstanding importance took place on the British front. On the night of the 16th-17th a small party forced an entrance into the enemy's front trench, southwest of Massine, bayoneted thirty of the occupants and returned with twelve German prisoners, having themselves lost only one man killed, and one wounded. On the 25th a mine was successfully sprung in front of Givenchy, inflicting a considerable number of casualties, and on the 28th there were fifteen encounters in the air, as a result of which one hostile machine was successfully brought down. Two days later further mines were exploded opposite Givenchy, while on December 2 an air-raid was carried out against Don Station in which it was believed a munition store was blown up. On December 4 a conference took place at Calais between the Prime Minister, Lord Kitchener and Mr. Balfour with their naval and military advisers on the one hand, and M. Briand, General Gallieni and Admiral Lacaze on the other hand.

The day before the meeting of this conference a change was announced in the functions of General Joffre. For some time past both in England and France criticism had been directed against the lack of unity in the control of the French and British Armies in the various parts of the world. It was generally perceived that the Germans derived a great advantage over the Allies by reason of the undivided sway of the German General Staff. Accordingly it was announced on December 3 that a new post had been created in France, entitled "Commander-in-Chief of the French Armies." To this post General Joffre was appointed; thereby assuming the command not only of the French Armies actually in France but also of the Salonika expedition and all the national Armies, with the exception of those operating in the Colonies, the land and sea forces in Northern Africa and the Republic of Morocco. This change in the higher command of the French was followed on December 15 by a change in the British higher command. Sir John French, after more than sixteen months of

severe and incessant strain, relinquished at his own request the command of the British Armies in Flanders, and was succeeded by General Sir Douglas Haig, who had been in command of the first army corps. Sir John French assumed the command of the troops stationed in the United Kingdom, and the King conferred upon him the dignity of Viscount. Further changes in the higher command soon followed. General Sir Horace Smith-Dorrien, who had been in command of the second army, was appointed to the supreme command in East Africa. Lieutenant-General Sir William Robertson, Chief of the General Staff of the expeditionary force, was recalled from France to take up at home the duties of Chief of the Imperial General Staff in succession to Lieutenant-General Sir Archibald Murray, who, in his turn, was appointed to the command of the troops in the Mediterranean. General Sir Charles Monro abandoned this latter command for that of the first army in France which had been under Sir Douglas Haig; and the new chief of the General Staff to Sir Douglas Haig was Major-General L. Kiggell, previously assistant to the Chief of the Imperial General Staff. The only further important appointment to be named is that of General Castlenau as Chief of Staff to General Joffre. General Castlenau still retained his rank as Commander of a group of armies.

On December 18 a Proclamation was issued in England calling up for service in the Army on January 20 the men belonging to groups 2, 3, 4 and 5 who had been attested under Lord Derby's scheme. These included the single men aged nineteen, twenty, twenty-one, and twenty-two.

Of the fighting on the western front during December little remains to be said. The Germans continued to attack from time to time but without scoring any success. A few days before Christmas Ypres was heavily bombarded. The end of the year saw the departure of the Indian Army Corps from France, their services being required in another field of action which was not published. Before leaving, a message was delivered to them from the King by the Prince of Wales, expressing to them his satisfaction with their services and with their high sense of duty, their courage and chivalry. No announcement was made as to the numbers of the British troops in France at the end of the year, but it was known that the superiority both in men and munitions had at length passed definitely to the side of the Allies. A continuous rain of shells was poured upon the German trenches day and night; the trenches of both sides were half filled with water owing to the extremely wet weather which characterised December. The discomfort experienced by the men was therefore acute, and when increased by the constant shelling it seemed that for the Germans the position was becoming always more intolerable. Many deserters came over to the French and British troops; and although the year had brought no great dramatic strokes or

changes of position, yet the close of it discovered the two sides in positions of relative superiority altogether different from that which had marked its commencement.

THE OPERATIONS IN RUSSIA.

Scarcely any alteration on the Russian front has to be recorded during the latter part of the year. As already stated the Germans had withdrawn large numbers of their men for the expedition into Serbia, and showed no disposition to attempt any further advance into Russian territory. The Russians on their side were busy raising new armies and giving their old armies a respite before attempting to resume offensive action. Such fighting as took place was therefore of a local character and devoid of any significance as regards the major issues of the war. At the end of September the Austrians were once again driven out of Luck; and the Russians succeeded also by a bayonet charge in ousting the Germans from Vileika east of Vilna with the capture of guns and ammunition. In the middle of October, General Ivanoff's armies in Galicia broke through the Austro-German line on the Strypa at Hajworonka, where a strong redoubt was stormed and captures made to the amount of sixty officers, 2,000 men, four guns, ten machine-guns and a convoy. In the latter part of the month the Germans attempted an advance upon Riga and fighting occurred near Olai, twelve miles from that city. For a time it was believed that the position of the Russian Army in this region was far from secure, but the German attempt was short-lived and the only real success which they scored was the capture of the town of Illukst, ten miles from Dvinsk with 3,000 Russian prisoners. This success was balanced by a Russian victory in Galicia at the beginning of November. The Austrians had succeeded in rushing the village of Siemikowice on the Strypa, but the Russians made a vigorous counter-attack and victoriously captured the whole body of 5,000 Germans and Austrians who had succeeded in penetrating their lines.

Fighting in the month of November continued to be severe in certain regions, but the dearth of official information made it extremely difficult to follow. In the middle of the month the Russians announced that they had captured 50,000 German and Austrian prisoners in all since the middle of October, with 21 guns, 118 machine-guns, 18 trench mortars, and 3 search-lights. At about the same date the Germans claimed a victory on the Styr, where General Ivanoff had gained the success already mentioned. A week later the Russians obtained a minor advantage at this point, and in the whole course of November it cannot be said that any permanent difference was made in the superiority of either side. The end of the month again saw fighting in the Riga and Dvinsk districts.

The month of December was even less productive of important events than that of November. On the 20th an Imperial Decree was issued relieving General Russky of his functions as Commander-in-Chief of the Armies on the northern front. He retained his position, however, as a member of the Council of the Empire and of the Supreme Council of War, and was the recipient of a rescript from the Czar in which His Majesty said the great work done in the difficult task of defending the capital had seriously compromised his health. The Emperor thanked General Russky for the brilliant results he had obtained, and expressed the hope that he would soon be at the head of the troops once more. At the end of the year the long period of inactivity at the southern extremity of the Russian front was broken by an attack in force by General Ivanoff's troops. The main centre of the fighting was near Toporontz close to the Bessarabian frontier, just within the border of Northern Bukovina. But there were simultaneous attacks along a considerable front extending from the Pruth to north of the Dniester, a distance of nearly forty miles. The Austrian official *communiqués* affirmed that this attack had been repulsed with heavy Russian losses. It was at all events clear that throughout these months the Russians had no other main object in view than to keep as many as possible of the enemy occupied in the trenches before them.

THE ITALIAN WAR.

Fighting on the Italian front was productive of no more permanent achievements than that upon the Russian front. A naval misfortune occurred at the end of September when a fire followed by an explosion broke out on board the Italian battleship *Benedetto Brin*, as a result of which the ship and many valuable lives were lost. At the end of October some progress was made at various points of the Western Trentino, but the Isonzo line continued to be the most important sector, as only here was an offensive on a grand scale possible. In this region the Italians established a clear superiority over the Austrian artillery and infantry, and on the extreme right over 4,000 prisoners were taken in three days on a front of six miles. But the moment for a general offensive had not yet come. From day to day slight progress was made by the Italians in one or other district; but the exceedingly difficult character of the ground precluded them from obtaining the full advantage of their numerical superiority. Nevertheless the position at the end of the year was very different from that at the beginning of the war. Italy now held all the routes for the invasion of Austria and the roads for the conquest of the Trentino. On the Isonzo front the Austrian defences had been broken in many places and around Gorizia the enemy had been reduced to his last line of trenches. When once the huge system of fortifica-

tions at this point had been overcome, the road to Trieste would be open. Meanwhile the troops under General Cadorna had been continually growing, until at length they exceeded a million men.

THE DARDANELLES.

The latter part of the year marked the complete failure of the attempt to force the Dardanelles; and the only event of importance which occurred was the withdrawal of troops from Suvla and Anzac. In the middle of October Sir Ian Hamilton returned to England and was succeeded in his command by General Sir C. C. Monro, K.C.B. During the short interregnum between the two commands Lieutenant-General Sir W. R. Birdwood assumed the control of the Gallipoli forces. From time to time minor events occurred at sea, such as the sinking of the British transport *Marquette* in the Ægean Sea with a loss of ninety-nine of the *personnel*. At the beginning of December a British submarine in the Sea of Marmora fired into and damaged a train on the Ismid railway, and torpedoed and sank the Turkish destroyer *Yar Hissar* and a supply steamer of 3,000 tons.

The withdrawal from Suvla Bay and Anzac took place on 'the night of December 18-19. It took the Turks completely by surprise, and they were not even conscious of the progress of the operation until the whole of it had been concluded. Not a single life was lost in executing what had been regarded as an operation of the greatest difficulty; and only three men were wounded. Six guns were left behind after being destroyed, and also a relatively small quantity of stores; and Mr. Asquith in making the announcement in the House of Commons stated that so successful a result had seemed to him almost incredible. No announcement was made as to the destination of the troops who had been re-embarked, nor was any attempt made to remove the army at the Cape Helles end of the Peninsula. A few days later Sir Charles Monro was appointed to the command of the first army in France, being succeeded in Gallipoli by Lieutenant-General Sir Archibald Murray, who had been chief of the Imperial General Staff.

THE OPERATIONS IN SERBIA.

It has already been stated that at the conclusion of the great German advance into Russia the enemy drew off a large number of his troops for the purpose of attacking Serbia. The Russian declaration of war upon Bulgaria took place on October 6 (*v. History of Bulgaria*) and on that day the Germans made their first movements against Serbia on the north. One Army group under Field-Marshal von Mackensen, and an Austro-Hungarian Army under General von Koevess, moved against the Drina and

the Save; while another Army under General von Gallwitz proceeded to cross the Danube near Semendria and attack Ram-Bazias. On October 14 a Bulgarian Army under General Bojadieff attacked Serbia from the east on the Negotin-Pirot line, while a second Bulgarian Army under General Todoroff commenced operations in the direction of Uskub-Veles.

This double attack upon Serbia had been to some extent foreseen by the Allied Governments, and an Anglo-French expedition began to land at Salonika on the morning of October 5, the French Army being under the command of General Sarraill and the British under Sir Bryan Mahon. No opposition to the landing was attempted by the Greek Government from whom indeed the invitation had originally emanated; and the Allied troops passed up the Nish railway to the neighbourhood of Strumnitza near the Bulgarian border. It appeared, however, that the assistance had arrived too late; for the progress of the enemy into Serbia from the north and east was rapid and irresistible. On October 10 Belgrade was occupied after severe fighting in which the Austro-Hungarian 8th Army Corps and the Brandenburg Reserve Corps took a prominent part.

The British Government declared war against Bulgaria as from 10 P.M. on October 15 and the French Government as from 6 A.M. on October 16, owing to the attack of that country upon their ally Serbia. Italy followed suit by declaration of war on October 19. The progress of the Bulgarians, however, was very rapid, and within a week of the commencement of their advance they had reached Vrania on the Salonika railway between Nish and Uskub. Connexion was established a few days later between the German and Bulgarian patrols at Liubishevatz on the Danube, and the Serbians thereafter were nowhere able to withstand the advance of the combined Armies. On October 21 the Bulgarian coast was bombarded by an allied squadron composed of British, French and Russian ships, and serious damage was inflicted upon the harbour works, railway station and shipping at Dedeagatch. By the end of October the Austro-German Armies had reached Kraguievatz, the principal arsenal of Serbia. By this time the Austro-Hungarian troops under General von Koevess had captured twenty officers, 6,600 men, thirty-two guns, nine machine-guns and a large quantity of other booty. On November 1 the enemy's line ran from the Bosnian border south of Valievo through Kraguievatz to a point east of Negotin; it then ran south-west of Pirot towards Vrania and so to Uskub. Nish fell into the hands of the Bulgarians on November 5, but the Germans did not reach that town for some days after. The junction between the main German and Bulgarian forces took place at Krivivir thirty-five miles north of Nish; and Kralievo was occupied at the same time by the Brandenburg troops with a booty of 130 guns.

Meanwhile the French and British Armies had been attacking Bulgaria from the south. The British were chiefly engaged north of Lake Doiran, while the French on their left occupied the line of the River Vardar as far north as Gradsko. At the end of the first fortnight of November more than half the territory of Serbia was in the hands of the enemy. Immense booty had been captured, especially at Kraguievatz where stores of metal, oil and rubber were found to the value of about 2,000,000*l.*; 7,000 prisoners had been taken near Krushevatz alone, and fifty guns including ten of large calibre. The Serbian head-quarters at Nish had been lost and new head-quarters had been established at Rashka, twelve miles north-east of Novi Bazar.

The advance of the Austro-German troops continued with scarcely any interruption or hesitation throughout November. On the 25th the German wireless press announced the capture of Mitrovitza by Austro-Hungarian troops and of Prishtina by German troops. The Serbian Government which had been temporarily located at Prizrend was at length obliged to quit Serbian territory altogether, and to take up its quarters at Skutari the capital of Albania. Prizrend itself was taken by the Bulgarians shortly afterwards and Monastir fell into the hands of the enemy during the first week of December. At length on the evening of November 28 an official announcement was issued by German headquarters to the effect that the campaign in the Balkans had come to an end. "With the flight of the scanty remains of the Serbian Army into the Albanian mountains, great operations against the same are brought to a close. Our object of effecting communication with Bulgaria and the Turkish Empire has been accomplished." . . . "More than 100,000 men, that is almost half of the entire Serbian fighting forces, have been taken prisoners; their losses in battle and in the desertion of the colours cannot be estimated. Guns, including heavy artillery and incalculable war material of all kinds, were captured. The German losses, in themselves to be deplored, can be accounted to be extremely moderate. Our troops have not suffered at all from disease."

For a few days after the capture of Monastir the civil administration of the town was in the hands of the Germans; but an official declaration was soon issued by the German Minister at Sofia to the effect that the captured town was the irrevocable possession of Bulgaria. The announcement was immediately followed by the institution in Monastir of a purely Bulgarian Administration.

Little more remains to be added to the account of this singularly disastrous campaign, except to record the rapid retreat of the French and British forces which had attempted so unsuccessfully to bring assistance to their Serbian Allies. For a few days the position of these forces appeared to be rather precarious.

They fell back rapidly upon Salonika which they proceeded to fortify as a strong position; meanwhile all Greek troops in this neighbourhood were removed. On December 12 the Bulgarians occupied the last of the three Macedonian towns which were still in the hands of the Allies, *viz.*, Doiran, Ghevgeli, and Struga. The enemy had apparently determined that he would not take the risk of hostilities against Greece by crossing the frontier of that country, and accordingly the last fights of the campaign took place near Doiran and Ochrida Lakes. The official Bulgarian record of these operations, lasting ten days, in the course of which the French and British troops were driven back into Greek territory, stated that the Allied Army consisted of 97,000 French and 73,000 British with 600 field-guns, 130 mountain-guns and eighty heavy howitzers. But the veracity of all Bulgarian statements may be estimated from the further gratuitous announcement that the French troops fought much more bravely than the British.

The French on withdrawing from Strumnitza had linked up with the British forces, and the retreat was not effected without inflicting severe damage upon the enemy. At one point a close concentration of Bulgarian troops was caught under the fire of the French 75's. On the British side the brunt of the fighting fell mainly on the Munster Fusiliers, the Dublin Fusiliers, and the Connaught Rangers. It was generally recognised that the retreat had been of a masterly character; and although the expedition had failed in its attempt to rescue Serbia, the presence of a powerful Allied Army at Salonika constituted a permanent and formidable threat to the communications of Germany with the Turkish Empire. As already stated the Allies proceeded strongly to fortify the town, and as the guns of the battleships could throw shells ten or twelve miles inland the danger of a successful assault by the enemy or of a siege seemed very remote. Thus ended the Serbian Campaign which in respect of its dramatic swiftness and success cannot be paralleled by any other military events which occurred in the course of the year.

ENGLISH HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

NEW YEAR TO EASTER.

THE House of Lords re-assembled on January 6. Since the House of Commons still stood adjourned for another month, the meeting of the Lords was a notable departure from precedent; but the universal desire to hear Lord Kitchener's expected statement on the war prevented criticism, and secured an unusually large attendance in the House.

The hope that important information would be disclosed as to the progress of the war was however not realised, and Lord Kitchener in his review of the six weeks' period which had elapsed since his last statement added little to what was already known. He pointed out that the operations on the Western front had for some time past resolved themselves into a form of siege warfare, and he announced that the army of Sir John French had been reinforced by a number of Territorial units and by another division which included a Canadian regiment. In the East Lord Kitchener declared that the German objective in Poland had suffered a severe check and that the great natural difficulties of winter operations in Russia were increased by a faulty line of communications.

Lord Kitchener described the Serbian victory over Austria as one of the most satisfactory features which had occurred during December; and as regards the Russian triumph in the Caucasus he believed that the effect would be far-reaching upon all the Turkish operations in the Near East. He stated that we were now occupying certain points in German East Africa, but that for the present our force in that country could advance no farther. Lord Kitchener declared that the military superiority in men and material was gradually passing from the Germans to the Allies. He announced that recruiting at home had proceeded on normal lines, without stating however what these were. Over 218,000 names of persons willing to serve had been registered by the Parliamentary Recruiting Committee. The shortage of officers had now been made good. Since the war began 29,100 officers had been appointed to the Army, and the *cadre* of the Expeditionary Force had been maintained.

Lord Curzon who followed Lord Kitchener insisted that no questions should be asked which might embarrass the Government

in any way in this momentous crisis. He regretted, however, the brevity of Lord Kitchener's speech, and desired especially to have further information as to the progress of hostilities in the more remote theatres and especially in Africa. He pointed out that the country knew nothing of what had occurred in these spheres, except what was contained in newspaper accounts and officers' letters. After asking for further information of Indian troops on active service he solemnly warned the House that we should have to put into the field two million and perhaps three million men. Lord Curzon then closed the debate with a high eulogy of the behaviour of the troops in the field.

On the following day a debate took place on the instructions issued to the Lords-Lieutenant of various counties with reference to invasion. The Duke of Rutland and Lord Durham pressed for more detailed instructions, while Lord Harris asserted that in Kent the position was quite satisfactory. Lord Crewe explained that the authorities intended gradually to bring about publicity, but Lord Curzon considered that something more specific should be done. Lord Curzon criticised furthermore the inadequate recognition by the Government of the Volunteer Training Corps.

The most important business of the day, however, was introduced by Lord Selborne, who invited the Government to make a statement on recent naval operations and the present naval position. He sharply criticised the failure of the Government to appoint any representative of the Admiralty in their House. As regards the naval expedition to Antwerp and as regards the escape of the *Goeben* and *Breslau* from the Straits of Messina, he remarked that the time would come when the Government would be called upon for a full explanation.

Lord Crewe, who spoke on behalf of the Admiralty, informed the House that as a result of the victory in the Falkland Islands only two German cruisers, the *Karlsruhe* and the *Dresden*, and two armed merchantmen were left still uncaptured. Lord Crewe went on to state that the *Formidable* was probably sunk by two torpedoes fired from a submarine, and he placed on record that after she had been struck the captain signalled to another ship to keep away, as he believed that there was a submarine in the neighbourhood.

Lord Curzon, who spoke next, again suggested that a Secretary to the Admiralty should be appointed in their House.

On Friday, January 8, an important debate on compulsory service took place before the House adjourned until February. The debate was opened by Lord Middleton who asked for particulars with regard to recruiting, and complained of the policy of the Government in withholding information on the subject for some weeks past. It was stated that Lord Kitchener was prevented by the work of his office from attending the House;

and in his absence Lord Lucas expressed general satisfaction with the recruiting returns; but resolutely declined to supply definite figures, stating that it was a matter of the utmost importance that they should not be given.

Lord Selborne then spoke of the colossal task at present before the country, and expressed the view that if the voluntary system did not bring forth an adequate number of men it would be necessary to resort to compulsory service, as had been done in the United States during the Civil War.

Lord Haldane replied on behalf of the Government. He laid stress on the fact that the country was fighting for no less than its life as a nation, and he regarded it as the duty of every Englishman to put into the scale everything that he possessed in the world. As regards compulsory service, he saw no reason to anticipate a breakdown of the voluntary system, in view of the very remarkable achievements which that system had already attained. But he went on to affirm that by the common law of the country it was the duty of every subject of the realm to assist the sovereign in repelling invasion. "Compulsory service is not foreign to the constitution of the country and in a great national emergency it might be necessary to resort to it." But any such course would only be adopted by the Government with regret.

Lord Curzon expressed general agreement with Lord Haldane's speech. He cited precedents both in England and America to show that when the voluntary system fails there is only one alternative. He urged the War Office to take preliminary steps with a view to preventing chaos if it should become necessary later on to institute compulsory service.

Lord Crewe said that at present the possibility of compulsion was not within the landscape as the Government saw it. He defended the Government's policy of reticence as to the figures of recruiting. At the conclusion of his speech the House adjourned until February 2.

During the first week of the year, public attention in England was mainly fixed on two incidents in connexion with the war. The first was the arrest of Cardinal Mercier, Primate of Belgium, who had addressed a pastoral letter to the Belgians from Malines at Christmas. In the course of this letter he described the devastation caused by the German invasion. He emphasised the relation between religion and patriotism, and said that Germany had broken her oath and had no legitimate authority in the country.

On January 2 General von Bissing, Governor of Belgium, issued a proclamation forbidding the clergy to read out or spread the pastoral letter, and the Cardinal himself was confined to his archiepiscopal palace. The King of the Belgians sent a telegram to the Pope protesting against the arrest of a prince of the Church which must grievously affect the heart of the Holy Father. Considerable indignation was excited in England.

The other incident on which public attention was fastened was the note presented by the American Ambassador on December 28, protesting against the British policy of a searching examination of American ships for contraband. Sir Edward Grey dispatched an interim note on January 7 in reply to the American objections. In the course of this note he said that the questions raised were too large and complicated to admit of immediate treatment, but he added that they were receiving careful consideration and that the present note was intended to clear the ground for the more detailed response which would follow. He agreed with the American Government that the cordial relations between the two countries would best be served by frankness on both sides. He disputed none of the general principles of International Law on which the American note appeared to be based. He agreed that neutral commerce should not be interfered with by a belligerent to a greater extent than was necessary for the national safety of that belligerent. He denied that the British Government had any wish or intention to interfere with genuine trade between the United States and other neutrals; but he insisted on their right to interfere with trade in contraband destined for the enemy's country.

Sir Edward Grey went on to deny that a heavy decrease in American trade was due to the British policy of contraband. He pointed out that the American figures for exports from New York in November 1913 amounted to \$8,772,000, as against \$21,000,000 in November 1914. In particular he cited statistics of the export of copper from the United States, showing that from the beginning of the war to the end of the third week in December the United States exported to Italy over 21,000,000 pounds of copper more than in the corresponding period of 1913. In the same way the exports of copper to Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Switzerland had amounted during the war period to more than 35,000,000 pounds whereas in the corresponding period of the preceding year it had only been 7,271,000 pounds. There existed therefore a strong presumption that this copper was not intended wholly for the use of neutrals, and the presumption was increased by the fact that four cases had already been discovered in which copper and aluminium consigned to Sweden were in reality destined for Germany. Sir Edward Grey laid stress on the danger that neutral countries contiguous to the enemy might become on an unprecedented scale a base of supplies for the armed forces of the enemy and for materials for manufacturing armaments. As regards the method of search, he insisted that it was necessary to bring a ship into port before it could be searched, and cited as an instance the impossibility of discovering copper hidden in bales of cotton if the examination were made at sea. As regards food-stuffs the note refused to give an unlimited and unconditional undertaking, in view of the fact that the enemy had abandoned

accepted rules of civilisation and humanity, and the uncertainty to what extent they might continue to violate such rules in the future.

Sir Edward Grey's interim reply was on the whole well received in the American Press. The Germanophile papers, including those associated with the name of Mr. Hearst, attacked the substance of the note, endeavouring to find in it a flat refusal of the American request. But the majority of the New York newspapers, including the *Tribune*, the *New York Press* and the *New York Herald*, commented favourably upon it. The Administration declined to express any views until the further reply which had been promised was received.

In connexion with this question considerable interest was aroused by the transfer of the Hamburg-Amerika liner *Dacia* to the American flag. This vessel, which had been sheltering at Galveston since the beginning of the war, was bought by an American citizen of German extraction and admitted to the American registry. This transfer served as a precedent on which might be decided the fortunes of a large number of German liners interned not only in the United States but in many other neutral countries. In England the opinion was widely held that the transfer should not be recognised, but that the *Dacia* if it sailed as announced with a cargo of cotton for Rotterdam, should be seized and brought before a prize court. On January 21 the British Ambassador at Washington gave notice that the British Government were unable to agree that the transfer of the *Dacia* was valid according to international law, and that they would therefore find themselves obliged, if the vessel should proceed to sea and be captured, to bring the ship before a prize court. After considerable delay in sailing, owing to strikes on the part of the crew, the vessel sailed and was captured by a French cruiser. The validity of the seizure was confirmed by the prize court on August 4.

Meanwhile the constant increase in the price of food in England was giving rise to some anxiety. At the beginning of September 1914 in the large towns the average increase over prices in July reached 11 per cent. In October and November it was 13 per cent., in December 17 per cent., and at the beginning of the year 19 per cent. On January 16 the best English wheat stood at 60s. a quarter as against 36s. a quarter on the corresponding date of the previous year. At the beginning of February the rise in the price of food had continued uninterruptedly. Contemporaneously there was a great rise in the price of coal, and the difficulties of transport made delivery very uncertain. In consequence of these difficulties, it was demanded in certain quarters that the Government should take possession of all the stocks of wheat in the country and sell them at fixed prices. In consequence of this agitation, the whole question of food supplies and

the rise of prices was taken into consideration by a Cabinet Committee under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister. It was believed that the question would be likely to occupy much of the attention of Parliament when that body re-assembled.

On Tuesday, February 2, both Houses re-assembled, and in both Houses the sittings opened with an assurance from the party leaders that all party hostilities would be suppressed. In the House of Lords Lord Lansdowne and in the House of Commons Mr. Bonar Law referred in similar terms to the party truce which had been arrived at. They admitted the courtesy of the Government in seeking their co-operation and in furnishing them with information; but they made it clear that no responsibility whatever rested upon the Opposition as regards the conduct of the war. The Government had not disclosed to the Opposition leaders their plans for the future prosecution of the war, nor had any confidential information been conveyed which might limit the freedom of the Opposition to criticise the policy of the Government if they wished to do so. In the House of Lords, Lord Crewe answered in the same friendly spirit, and announced that no contentious business would be introduced, but that they would confine themselves entirely to business connected with the prosecution of the war. In the House of Commons, Mr. Asquith warmly thanked the leading members of the Opposition for their co-operation. Subsequently Mr. Henderson on behalf of the Labour party criticised the Government on the length of the period for which the House had adjourned, and expressed the hope that the House would be given an opportunity at an early date of discussing the serious issue raised by the increase of prices of food, coal and other commodities.

On February 3 sympathetic references were made in both Houses with regard to the death of Mr. Percy Illingworth. In the House of Commons Mr. Asquith moved a resolution giving invariable precedence to Government business and greatly limiting the time at the disposal of private members. Although the resolution was accepted as reasonable by Mr. Bonar Law on behalf of the Opposition, it was warmly criticised by a number of Liberal members below the gangway, and Mr. Asquith turned with some acerbity upon his own supporters. He said that to listen to some of the criticism which had been put forward, one would not realise that a great war was being waged and that at least six million men in arms were fighting one another to the death. He did not believe that there was the faintest echo outside the House of the complaints as to the necessary curtailment of the ordinary privileges of the private member. He declared that we were in the presence of great, of terrible and of unspeakable possibilities, and that no human being could take upon himself the responsibility of saying when we should be free to resume the discussion of domestic controversies.

On the following day Mr. Harcourt announced in the House of Commons that it had been decided in consultation with all the Dominions that it would be undesirable this year to hold the normal meeting of the Imperial Conference. On a vote for the salaries of the staff and other expenses of labour exchanges, Mr. J. M. Robertson said that one of the most remarkable features of the present situation was the great abundance of employment in general, though with occasional instances of marked unemployment as in the cotton trade. In the House of Lords, Lord Parmoor moved the second reading of a bill to amend the Defence of the Realm Act, 1914, in such a way as to restore to civilians their right to be tried in the ordinary criminal courts. Sympathy with the views of Lord Parmoor were expressed by Lord Haldane, Lord Lansdowne, and Lord Loreburn. It was admitted that in emergency measures, like the Defence of the Realm Act, some interference was inevitable with privileges to which the greatest importance was rightly attached. A general desire was manifested, however, to avoid causing embarrassment to the Government, and on the motion of Lord Parmoor the debate was adjourned.

On Monday, February 8, the time of the House was chiefly devoted to the Army Estimates. Mr. Asquith announced that the total number of British Army casualties in the Western theatre of war up to February 4 was approximately 104,000 of all ranks. The Army Estimates, introduced by Mr. Tennant, were of a very unusual character, inasmuch as they named neither the number of men nor the amount of expenditure that was required. As to the latter point the nominal figure of 15,000*l.* had been put down, and Mr. Tennant explained that the reason for withholding the facts was the very great importance of preventing the enemy from knowing how large an army we were going to put into the field against them or what would be the position of our troops. At the same time it was desired to give the House an opportunity for a general discussion of policy and control over expenditure. Mr. Tennant stated that the figures for recruiting, which, however, he declined to give, continued to be very satisfactory; but he said that every man would be needed in this great life and death struggle, and that the time was approaching when it might be necessary to make inroads into important industries upon which large bodies of the population depended. With regard to the British design of aeroplane, he said that it had proved itself superior both to the French and the German. Although hitherto the aeroplane engines had been almost entirely French, we were now gradually becoming self-supporting as regards our aeronautical material. Turning to the Territorial force he said that the overwhelming preponderance of its members had taken upon themselves the obligation of foreign service, and that the value and efficiency of the force had now been placed beyond doubt. As regards the prevention of

disease, Mr. Tennant praised the work of the R.A.M.C., and stated that the bulk of the sickness which had occurred had been due to the wet and cold. Enteric was rare, but frost-bite and rheumatism had been very prevalent.

Mr. Long on behalf of the Opposition paid a high tribute to the Army and gave voice to the sentiment, widely spread throughout the country, in favour of the publication of as much information as possible about the progress of recruiting and of the war. He pressed the claims of the National Volunteer Force for more generous recognition from the War Office; and he elicited from Mr. Tennant the statement (modified later) that the supreme command of the troops in this country was vested in Sir Ian Hamilton, who was therefore responsible for the whole internal defence of the country in the event of an invasion. Lord Robert Cecil likewise condemned the policy of excessive secrecy on the part of the Government.

On the following day a number of important questions were asked as to the formation of the new Army. On the vote for a total not exceeding three million men for the Home and Colonial establishments for the Army, exclusive of India, a strong protest against compulsory inoculation for enteric was made by Mr. Chancellor, who affirmed that men were being terrorised and forced into submission to inoculation and punished in various ways for exercising their right to exemption; in substantiation of this statement he gave a number of instances. Mr. Hayes Fisher called attention to recent statements that British prisoners in Germany were destitute of proper clothing and food. In defence of the practice of inoculation Dr. Addison referred as a triumphant vindication of its value to the fact that there had only been 421 cases of enteric among our troops. He deprecated the citation of results during the South African War on the ground that the whole subject was then only in its infancy, and Mr. Long similarly urged that no measure should be omitted which might conduce to the health of our troops at the front. Further complaint was made as to the condition of some of the huts in which recruits were billeted, and Mr. H. Baker, on behalf of the Government, stated that the deficiencies which had been referred to were due to the haste with which it had been necessary that these huts should be erected. Mr. Long was dissatisfied with the reply of the Government and the discussion was continued in a very small House.

The Army debate was concluded on February 10. Mr. Tennant explained that when an officer was taken prisoner or was missing his substitute received temporary rank for three months, after which it became permanent. He corrected his former statement to the effect that Sir Ian Hamilton was responsible for the whole internal defence of the country; and now stated that Sir Ian Hamilton's command was limited to a mobile

force ready to move to any point where an attack might take place. He announced that a small delegation of members of Parliament had been formed to visit the internment camps of this country. With regard to the Volunteer Corps he was very severe on persons who joined them instead of joining the regular Army, and strongly deprecated the suggestion that they should be permitted to wear uniform. As regards inoculation for typhoid, evidence was accumulating in favour of compulsion; and Lord Kitchener was about to issue instructions that leave must be given sparingly in case of men who declined to be inoculated.

Mr. Tennant was sharply criticised by Mr. Long on account of the delay in reaching a decision on the important question of inoculation. He urged that the supreme command of the country ought to be vested in the hands of a single general, and with regard to the Volunteer Corps he deprecated as strongly as Mr. Tennant had done their withdrawal of men who might have made recruits for the regular Army. After further discussion, the vote for a total of not exceeding three million men was agreed to, as was also the "token" vote of 1,000*l.* for pay.

Meanwhile the very widespread discontent which had been felt throughout the country with the management of the Press Bureau found expression in a motion of dissatisfaction made by Mr. King in the House of Commons on February 8. He drew attention to the fact that news was sometimes allowed to be published in the provinces but not in London, and criticism was also directed by Sir W. P. Byles and Mr. Joynson-Hicks. Sir Stanley Buckmaster defended himself from the charges brought against his office. He said that he had never withheld for five minutes any information which he possessed about the war, but he affirmed that one of the very first duties of his office was to prevent the publication of matter calculated to "unduly depress" the people of this country. He pointed out that he had no power whatever to compel newspapers to submit their matter to him. The only restraint upon newspapers was that if, after receiving notice, they published dangerous matter without authority, they would have no defence if they were proceeded against under the Defence of the Realm Act. It could not be expected that the fifty-one men engaged in the censorship would all take the same view about every item of news submitted to them, and hence some anomalies and inequalities were bound to arise. On the one hand there was the desire that our newspapers should have more material to fill their columns, and on the other hand the immense danger of conveying useful news to the enemy. He condemned the motion as calculated to bring discredit upon the Press Bureau and thereby to play into the hands of the enemy.

The Solicitor-General was taken to task by Mr. Bonar Law for the tone of his reply. The one thing necessary was to let the people of these and other countries feel that the official news of

this country was true and could be relied upon. It would be a great advantage if a bulletin were sent from the British front every second or third day, similar to that which came from the French side. Great damage might be done by the publication of news, but it was very necessary that the people should be kept as well informed as possible of everything that had happened. After some further discussion the motion was rejected without a division.

On February 11 an important debate took place on the high price of food. Before the beginning of the debate Mr. Asquith announced that arrangements had been made and would shortly be put into force under which a communication would be sent twice a week by Sir John French, giving a summary of the doings of the British force. He stated further that about 60 per cent. of the wounded recovered sufficiently to become fit again for service.

The debate on the increased cost of living was introduced by a motion of Mr. Ferens, regretting the rise in the price of the necessaries of life and calling upon the Government to use every endeavour to prevent a continuance of the evil. He stated that bread, flour and coal had risen from 50 to 100 per cent. since the beginning of the war, and that in some parts of London coal was being retailed to poor people at 2s. a cwt.

Mr. Asquith delivered an impartial statement of the facts before coming to the question of a remedy. He said that the rise in prices was much smaller than could have been anticipated after six months of war, and that in fact it had not reached the point which had been experienced in times of profound peace by many now living. The rise in retail food prices from the beginning of the war to February 1 had been about 24 per cent. in London, about 23 per cent. in the other large towns and somewhat over 20 per cent. in small towns and villages. The material commodities which might be classed as necessaries of life were five in number, *viz.*, wheat, flour, meat, sugar and coal. Comparing the price of each of these at the present time with the price in February of the preceding year, wheat showed an increase of 72 per cent., flour had increased 75 per cent., and as compared with the average of the three years previous to last year, the increase was 66 per cent. The increase of the price of British meat over February of last year did not exceed 6 per cent. and of foreign meat it was 12 per cent. Sugar had increased 72 per cent. since last year, but as compared with the average of the three preceding years it was only 43 per cent. Coal showed an increase of 15 per cent. Notwithstanding the very substantial increase shown by these figures, Mr. Asquith pointed out that all the items in the list, with the exception of coal, were dearer after the conclusion of the Franco-Prussian War than they were now. The average price of English wheat was now 53s. 3d. as against an average price of 54s. 8d. in the years following the Franco-Prussian War.

Coal was no dearer in London to-day than it was between 1875 and 1885, and sugar was at about the same level as in the later seventies. Owing to the large Government expenditure in various branches of industry, there had been very little falling off in consumption. The most serious increase dealt with was that of wheat, and the increase itself was due to a diminished supply with an increased demand. The causes of a diminished supply were the failure of the Australian crop, the temporary embargo placed on export by the Government of India, the delay in export from the Argentine owing to bad weather conditions, and finally the closing of the Dardanelles against the Russian crop. It was estimated that ten million quarters of wheat were lying in various Russian ports which under ordinary conditions would have been available for exportation to Western Europe. One further factor was the depredation of crops in Belgium, Northern France and elsewhere.

The increased demand was due to the fact that the individuals composing the new armies consumed far more than they had been accustomed to in civil life. Abnormal purchases had also been made by Italy, Holland and France. The rise in freights and difficulties of transport were subsidiary causes. As regards meat the entire rise of price was probably due to the increased consumption of the Army. No army in the world had been so well fed or better supplied with meat, and the men at the front ate more meat than they would if they remained at home.

The rise in the price of coal was partly due to freight and partly to the diminished quantity of labour at the mines on account of enlistment. Dealing in a more general way with the whole question, Mr. Asquith pointed out that practically the whole of the shipping of Germany, Austria and Hungary, constituting 14 per cent. of the merchant shipping of the world, had been swept off the seas; and that in other respects ships had not yet settled down to the novel conditions imposed by the war. Every effort was being made to release ships from the service of the Admiralty for purposes of commerce. A further factor in the rise of prices was shortage of transport labour; 10 per cent. of all railway employees had enlisted and Liverpool alone had sent about 6,000 dock labourers. Many fewer seamen were available for the mercantile marine. The shortage of labour had caused serious congestion in the ports and hampered the railways. Reviewing the situation as a whole, Mr. Asquith pointed out that a certain number of hardships were a necessity of war, and condemned the various suggestions that had been made for Government action, such, for instance, as the fixing of maximum prices,—an experiment already made by the German Government with disastrous consequences.

Mr. Clynes on behalf of the Labour party expressed deep disappointment at the statement of the Prime Minister. He con-

sidered that the rise in prices had exceeded the economic necessity, and that steps should be taken to prevent contractors and dealers exploiting the needs of the people. Mr. Bonar Law, on the other hand, found no fault with the utterances of Mr. Asquith. He held that there was no theoretical objection to Government action, but the power of any Government in such a matter was very limited. He considered that the business capacities of business people had not been properly organised or utilised, and he did not understand why shipowners should be allowed to make enormous profits from the cause for which the people of the country had been making such heavy sacrifices.

The suggestion that shipowners, coalowners, etc., were taking unfair advantage of the national emergency was warmly repudiated by several members from the back benches, and the debate was then adjourned until the following Wednesday.

On its resumption (Feb. 17) there were further criticisms from the Labour benches of the Government's decision that no action was possible. Mr. W. C. Anderson, the Labour member for Sheffield, Attercliffe, who spoke in the House of Commons for the first time, made a speech that attracted considerable attention. He said that the purchasing power of a sovereign had diminished since 1900 by at least 5s., and that while the poor were asking for bread the Prime Minister offered them little more than the law of supply and demand. The Government did not hesitate to set aside that law when they wished to do so, but in the present case they confined themselves to abstract principles instead of paying attention to the practical issues. Mr. Runciman on behalf of the Government denied that the Prime Minister and his colleagues in the course of this investigation had been animated by any desire to prove an economic doctrine. Before departing from principles which had been tested again and again it was first desirable to know whether the proposed modifications were likely to effect improvements. No evidence had been found for the suggestion that foodstuffs had been unnaturally withheld from the market, although the stocks were necessarily somewhat larger than in times of peace. As regards coal, the heavy increase of price was to a great extent limited to London, and was due to the fact that the railways were so occupied with Government work that the transport of coal was a matter of unusual difficulty. Mr. Runciman said that he would not hesitate to embark on the State control of ships if it would be to our national advantage, but he believed that such a measure would make things ten times worse. He implored the last speaker not to try to bring about the millennium in the middle of a great war, and stated that the congestion of the ports had already been reduced.

Mr. Chamberlain, who spoke next, pointed out that the measures demanded by the Labour party were those for which they had contended in times of peace, and had no special reference to

the war. The midst of a war was an unsuitable moment in which to bring about a great revolution. He pressed the Government to expedite the proceedings of the prize courts, and criticised their policy in buying up sugar at a high price, while refusing to buy meat when they could have got it at a low price. He was certain, however, that the Government were right in dealing with the matter at the present time through the ordinary and accustomed ways of trade. After some further speeches the resolution was talked out, after repeated refusals by the Speaker to accept motions for the closure from the Labour benches.

During the week ending February 6, a meeting took place in Paris between the Finance Ministers of France, Russia and Great Britain, to consider financial questions arising out of the war; and on February 15 Mr. Lloyd George made an important statement in the House of Commons on the results of the conference. He said that this was the most expensive war that had ever been waged in material, men and money. For the year ending December 31 next the aggregate expenditure of the Allies would not be far short of 2,000,000,000*l.*, of which the largest individual item fell to the share of the British Empire. Russia was in a different position from either Britain or France as regards natural resources. She was prodigiously rich, and by suppressing the sale of all alcoholic liquors she had increased the productivity of her labour by something between 30 and 50 per cent. But she had not sufficient command of capital to develop her resources to their full extent. France also had special difficulties, and for the moment she was bearing by far the greatest strain of the war in proportion to her resources; the enemy were within fifty-five miles of her capital and were in occupation of parts of her richest territory. These circumstances were reflected in the money markets and constituted part of the difficulties of France in raising vast sums of money to carry on the war. But those difficulties were already passing away. Then there were the smaller States, which found their financial support in the greater countries with which they were allied. In addition to Belgium and Serbia, there were other States preparing for war; and they could only borrow in the French and English markets. Great Britain also had her special difficulties. Two-thirds of her food supplies were purchased abroad, and since we were no longer able to pay as usual in exports, freights and services, the balance was for the first time heavily against us and we had to exercise great vigilance in regard to our gold. It had been agreed at the Paris conference that each of the Allies should bring to the common cause that which they were most competent to supply, without reference to any principle of equal sharing by all. So that whereas one country might bring into the alliance more trained and armed men, another might bring a larger Navy or greater resources in capital and credit. It had been decided, however, that the issue of a joint

loan would be very undesirable, except in the case of borrowings by small States. With regard to these, a joint loan would be floated at an opportune moment to cover the advances already made to such countries. In the case of Russia we had already advanced 32,000,000*l.* for purchases here and elsewhere—outside the Russian Empire; and France had also made advances. If, as he hoped, Russia was able before long to export a considerable quantity of her grain, she would not stand under the same necessity of borrowing for purchases in this country or outside. Russian requirements for the present would be satisfied by raising 50,000,000*l.* in equal sums on the French and British markets. Treasury Bills to the extent of 10,000,000*l.* on the credit of Russia had been issued within the last few days, and it was gratifying to find that they had already been over-subscribed. As to the position of the gold reserve, it was larger than it had ever been in the history of this country, and it had increased enormously since the beginning of the war. The reserves of France and Russia were still larger, and neither of them had been touched at all except for the transfer of 8,000,000*l.* of gold from Russia to this country. Arrangements had been made whereby if our stock of gold were to show signs of depletion the banks of France and Russia would come to our assistance. Other results of the conference had been an undertaking from Russia to facilitate the export of Russian produce of every kind to the Allied countries, and an arrangement by which confusion and competition should be avoided in the purchases made by the Allies in neutral countries.

Mr. Chamberlain expressed general satisfaction with the statement of Mr. Lloyd George. He asked, however, that an opportunity might be given for discussing it in the House, and Mr. Asquith immediately undertook that this should be done.

The House then transferred its attention to Mr. Churchill who made a long speech on the naval situation. He mentioned that whereas the War Office had been forced to create an army eight or ten times as large as any previously contemplated in this country, the Admiralty had suffered under no such disabilities; for the opening of the war had found them prepared down to the smallest particulars. The estimates which had been formed of the quantity of oil likely to be consumed by the Fleet in war, had proved to be much larger than the actual consumption; and since there was no difficulty whatever in buying any quantity of oil, it had been found possible to convert the *Royal Sovereign* to a completely oil-fuel basis like the *Queen Elizabeth*. No difficulties whatever had been found in manning the Fleet, and every available ship that could be of the slightest use had been sent to sea. This satisfactory state of affairs was due to the care which the House of Commons had always taken to ensure a large preponderance of naval power. Mr. Churchill commented on the extraordinary success of the Navy in convoying the troops, and particularly

praised the Admiralty transport department which had hitherto conveyed from one place to another about a million men without any accident or loss of life. He said that we were at war with the second greatest naval Power of the world, and that the Admiralty had on charter approximately one-fifth of the British mercantile tonnage. The necessity for this step was due to the fact that we had no dockyard or naval port at the back of the Army, and that the transport between this country and France required the most elaborate machinery. It was necessary to retain in attendance on the Fleet a large number of colliers and ammunition-ships. The extensive Admiralty requisitions of vessels, about which complaint had been made, were quite unavoidable. The strain upon the Navy involved by numerous and complicated operations had been greatly lessened by the victory of the Falkland Islands, which had set free a large force of cruisers and battleships for other purposes. The battle-cruiser action off the Dogger Bank had established the superiority of our guns to those of the Germans, and shown that our shooting was at least as good as theirs. The naval operations had also proved the remarkable excellence of the engines of our ships. The *Kent* for instance which was launched thirteen years ago was designed to go $23\frac{1}{2}$ knots. At the Falkland Islands she had to catch a ship which went considerably more than $24\frac{1}{2}$ knots. Great pressure was put upon the engines and they drove the *Kent* 25 knots and caught and sank the *Nürnberg*. Sir David Beatty's action had shown that the Germans did not venture to fight when they were in a minority of four to five, and moreover that if they had fought they would unquestionably have been destroyed. If ever the Grand Fleet set out for the general battle, we should hope to exceed the enemy both in quantity and quality by far more than five to four. The losses of the Navy included 5,500 officers and men, chiefly as a result of submarine attacks. We had killed about an equal number of the German Navy, and had taken prisoner 82 officers and 934 men; no British naval prisoners had been taken by the Germans in fighting at sea. Mr. Churchill condemned the suggestion that a court-martial should be held in every case where a ship ran upon a mine; such a policy as this would encourage the Navy to play for safety rather than to take those risks which are an inevitable accompaniment of the mastery of the sea. Germany had now departed from the practice of civilised States by announcing her intention to scuttle and sink merchant ships at sight by her submarines. This policy was likely to involve a certain amount of loss, though he did not believe that any vital injury could be done; but retaliatory measures were under consideration. Hitherto, we had not attempted to stop imports of food into Germany nor to prevent neutral ships from trading with German ports; and we had allowed German exports in neutral ships to pass unchallenged. A

further declaration on the part of the Allied Governments would shortly be made for the purpose of applying for the first time the full force of naval pressure to the enemy. In conclusion Mr. Churchill said that the British Navy and its sea-power would increasingly dominate the general situation, and in default of other causes could ultimately even decide by itself the issues of the war.

Mr. Bonar Law cited the case of a steamer carrying 4,500 tons of cargo which had been lying about at different places on the North coast of Scotland without doing anything for three or four months, and he suggested that the wasting of so large a ship was due to deficient organisation at the Admiralty. Nevertheless he admitted that the atmosphere now surrounding the Navy was entirely different from that which prevailed at the beginning of the war, when certain isolated incidents that were unfavourable to us had occurred. A great danger at the beginning of the war was that the German Fleet might have caught a part of our Fleet separated from the rest. That danger had been avoided and the escape of German cruisers to prey upon our commerce had also been prevented. The Navy did its work in silence, unbroken except by the guns of the ships and by the pen of Mr. Churchill. He entirely disagreed with everything that Mr. Churchill had said on the subject of courts-martial. A court-martial should not be regarded as any condemnation of an officer, but rather as a defence of his honour. He admitted that in time of war a dictatorship was necessary, and that the Admiralty must have power to appoint or dismiss officers without giving a reason; but except where it was absolutely necessary, the dictatorship was dangerous and should be avoided. He compared the naval situation at present with the time when Nelson lay for two years off Toulon, and he deprecated the idea that we should be induced by neutrals to give up any one of the rights which our sea-power gave us, for it was by our sea-power that we hoped to bring the war to a close.

Lord Charles Beresford suggested that Britain, France, Russia and Japan should send a joint note to the neutral countries declaring their intention to stop all supplies that could be of benefit to Germany. He warmly criticised the Admiralty on the loss of the *Formidable* which had been brought about either through criminal negligence, crass stupidity or amateur strategy. The only way to restore confidence was a return to the old tradition of holding courts-martial. Mr. Churchill was likewise criticised by Mr. Falle, the Opposition member for Portsmouth, who inquired why the First Lord should be continually running over to France, and what right he had to speak for England in an interview with a foreign newspaper correspondent. If it was true that our Navy was fully equal to our needs, why were middle-aged reservists sent to sea in antiquated ships which could neither steam nor fire their guns? The loss of the *Cressy*, *Hogue* and *Aboukir* were attributed

in Portsmouth to the ignorance of the First Lord. He complained also of the escape of the *Goeben* and of the orders said to have been given to Admiral Craddock. The remainder of the debate was sparsely attended and further criticisms on the Admiralty were met by Dr. Macnamara.

On the following day the House went into Committee of Supply on the Navy Estimates; and Dr. Macnamara made a speech on the vote for 250,000 officers, seamen and boys, coast-guard and royal marines. He announced the intention of the Government with regard to prize bounties and prize money. Prize bounty was a reward for the taking or sinking of enemy ships of war, and was to be distributed among the officers and crews that were actually present at the capture or destruction of an enemy vessel. The money distributed was to be calculated at the rate of 5*l.* for each person on board the enemy ship at the beginning of the engagement. Prize money on the other hand was an award of the proceeds of the capture of merchant ships; it was to be pooled and divided among the whole Navy. He announced various increases of wages among the men in the Royal Dockyards, and pointed out that separation allowances to sailors' wives was an entirely new institution. The question of courts-martial in all cases of the loss of war-ships was again raised by Mr. Butcher and Lord Robert Cecil, both of whom deprecated the departure from the traditional practice. They were answered by the Attorney-General (Sir J. Simon) who denied that it had ever been statute-law that courts-martial must be held in such cases. He added that it would often be very difficult to hold them without interference with the action and employment of naval captains, whose daily services were urgently needed. His reply, however, did not satisfy Mr. Bonar Law, who insisted that although there was no legal necessity to hold these courts-martial, nevertheless it was the accepted rule that they should be held. Very little interest was taken in the debate and after a few more speeches the vote was agreed to.

On the same day, in the House of Lords, Lord Curzon criticised the Government for their failure to provide a proper representation of Government departments in the House. He pointed out that, of the principal departments of State, the following had no direct representation in the House of Lords—Foreign Office, Home Office, Admiralty, Board of Trade, Local Government Board, Treasury, Board of Education, Scottish Office, Irish Office and Post Office: a situation which he regarded as not merely invidious but almost disrespectful to the House. Lord Crewe in reply said that, as regards the Foreign Office, Lord Herschel would reply to questions relating to the ordinary work at the Foreign Office. As regards the War Office they had not only Lord Kitchener but also Lord Haldane; and it was arranged that Lord Lucas would answer such questions as Lord Kitchener had

not time to attend to. Lord Stanmore would represent the Scottish Office, while Lord Beauchamp would represent the Irish Office; and Lord Emmott, who had hitherto represented the Scottish Office, would in future undertake the representation of the Admiralty.

On February 18 Mr. Young called attention to the appointment of Mr. Montague Meyer as sole purchasing agent for timber required by the War Office. Mr. Meyer received a commission of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and since the value of the timber purchased for the Government was approximately 600,000*l.*, Mr. Meyer must have derived from it the enormous sum of 15,000*l.* Mr. Baker replied on behalf of the War Office. He stated that Mr. Meyer purchased timber at a far cheaper rate than it could be obtained elsewhere. Whereas the quotations made to the Office of Works by leading merchants averaged 14*l.* 10*s.* a standard, Mr. Meyer bought what was wanted at from 10*l.* to 12*l.* a standard. Sir H. Dalziel nevertheless held that there was room for an inquiry, when a man employed by a public department was making a profit out of it at the rate of 60,000*l.* a year.

On February 22 the House went into Committee of Supply to deal with a Vote on Account of 36,853,000*l.* for the Civil Services and Revenue departments. The day was devoted to an important though somewhat technical discussion on aniline dyes. The discussion was started by Mr. Paget, who called attention to the scheme for establishing a national aniline dye industry, and the proposed Government participation in the formation of the company. Mr. Lough doubted whether the Government would do any good by their action, and did not see why, if the Government devoted so much money for one trade affected by the war, they should not do it for a great many other industries. Sir Philip Magnus said that it would take this country four or five years before it could establish a dye industry capable of competing with Germany. For this purpose a much larger grant in aid of research work was necessary than the proposed 10,000*l.* a year for ten years.

Mr. Runciman in his reply said that the matter was one of vital concern, not only for the textile industries, but for the whole group of industries that were dependent on the use of colours. The Government spent between 2,000,000*l.* and 2,500,000*l.* a year on dyes, and it was this industry above all others through which Germany had it in her power to hit us hardest. Our stocks of dyes had already run very low and it was absolutely necessary that some steps should be taken to organise the supplies. For this reason the Government had obtained an option on the works of Messrs. Read, Holliday & Sons, Ltd., of Huddersfield, under which that firm could be taken over at a price in relation to which the average annual profits during the last six years represented about 6 per cent. Provisional agreements had also been entered

into with one or two concerns in England for the purchase of intermediate products. Before the prospectus was published, they had promises of subscriptions of well over 400,000*l.* out of a million. He had no prejudice in favour of Government interference with industry, and the sooner the concern was able to stand on its own feet the sooner was it likely to be prosperous. If Parliament did not agree to this step, the great textile industries of Lancashire and Yorkshire would be in danger; and he stated that a single month of unemployment in the cotton industry would "mop up" more than a million of national money.

Mr. Runciman's defence was sharply criticised by Mr. Chamberlain, who asked what security the Government were going to give the company. There were in existence some half-dozen gigantic German companies who had an understanding to ensure the prevention of outside competition; and he asked what would be the fate of the new undertaking after the war, when confronted with the rivalry of these gigantic German concerns. He described the scheme as a form of protection; and although he had no objection to it on that ground, yet it was not a scheme on which business men would be likely to risk their money of their own accord. He commented on the fact that Messrs. Read, Holliday and Sons, Ltd., had demanded the whole payment in cash instead of taking up a large proportion of the shares. Sir Alfred Mond, who spoke next, failed to see why 4,000,000*l.* was necessary, or how it could be spent intelligently on new plant within the next year, or even two years. Notwithstanding a widespread feeling of dissatisfaction in the House, the vote was agreed to after a few further speeches.

On February 23 the Attorney-General asked leave to introduce a bill "to amend the Universities and College Estates Act, and to extend the powers of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge and the Colleges therein, to make statutes therein for the purposes of the present war." He drew attention to the heavy sacrifices which had been incurred by the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge owing to the absence of about two-thirds of the students who would ordinarily be in residence, but had now joined the Army. Unless emergency provisions were made, the Colleges could not readily adjust their scholarships so as to provide financial aid for the present holders after their return from the war. Many of the younger tutors and teachers moreover would lose their Fellowships owing to their absence, unless the Colleges could obtain power temporarily to suspend the regulations. The sudden loss of revenue to the Universities and Colleges was to be remedied by conferring a power to borrow; but the provisions of the Bill were purely permissive and limited to the period of emergency. This period was to be regarded as ending at the close of the calendar year in which the war terminated; and if it terminated in the latter half of the year, then at the close of the following

year. The Universities asked for no assistance from the Treasury or tax-payers, but only for power to enlarge or modify their existing regulations.

The important debate of the day, however, was devoted to the subject of the Finance of the Allies. The debate was raised on a motion of Sir T. Whittaker, expressing general approval of the arrangements made by Mr. Lloyd George with the Finance Ministers of France and Russia, and reported by him to the House on February 15. Sir Thomas said that our Allies were putting far more men into the field than it was possible for us to do; and it was our duty to give them such financial aid as would make their armies as large and well equipped as possible. It was cheaper for us to help Russia raise and equip large armies than to provide such armies ourselves. The motion was welcomed by Mr. Chamberlain, who regarded it as entirely fitting that the military alliance should be extended to the realm of finance. He thought that the decisions in the financial conference were in the main wise; and he heartily approved of the arrangements made for improving the exchange between Russia and this country. As regards financial assistance to Belgium he thought it would be better that, instead of the Allied Powers raising a joint loan, Belgium should raise a loan under the joint guarantee of the Powers. He did not approve of the suggestion of Mr. Mason that the Treasury notes now in circulation should be withdrawn. What he liked to see was a large reserve of gold centralised for use in an emergency; and when the exchanges were adverse, it should be used freely.

In his reply Mr. Lloyd George said that various considerations were urged in the course of the conference which could not be stated in public without danger of embarrassing our Allies. He entirely agreed with Mr. Chamberlain's views on the question of a joint loan, but in a conference there must be a certain amount of give and take. He would certainly consider the very practical suggestion which had been made by Mr. Chamberlain. He was also completely in accord with him on the question of currency. There was too much disposition even to-day to worship the golden calf; and they had always gone on the principle that gold was there to be used whenever there was a demand for it. Although he did not like prophesying, he did not mind saying that the reserves of gold at our command would carry us through any emergency that could possibly be foreseen. There need be no fear at all on the matter. The present war was a war not merely of men but even more of equipment. In this respect the Allies had fallen short of their great enemy, who had been making preparations for many years past; but the rectification of this was purely a matter of time. After a number of other speeches the motion was agreed too.

The feeling of dissatisfaction on the subject of naval courts-

martial found expression in a motion by Lord Selborne in the House of Lords on February 24. This motion declared that it was the opinion of the House that the established custom of the Navy, by which a court-martial is held to investigate the loss of any of His Majesty's ships, was in the best interests of the Navy and ought to be maintained. Lord Selborne confessed that there did not exist the same confidence in Mr. Churchill's individual judgment as in the collective judgment of the Board of Admiralty. The reasons given by Mr. Churchill for departure from the custom for holding a court-martial were quite unworthy of the right honourable gentleman's intentions. No slur would be cast on the officers tried; in particular there were strong arguments for holding courts-martial in the cases of the *Formidable* and of the *Cressy*, the *Hogue* and the *Aboukir*. The secrecy with which these disasters had been treated was bad for the national temper.

Lord Emmott in reply said that there was no law requiring courts-martial to be held, and that it had not been the custom in the past to hold them in time of war except in the event of capture or of some definite charge. Courts-martial would involve the attendance of officers of high rank who were urgently needed elsewhere, for the fleets might at any moment have to go to sea to take a great naval decision.

Lord Desart remarked that the resolution would not compel the Admiralty to put a man on his trial at a time when this would interfere with the interests of the service or the movements of the Fleet. Lord Lansdowne, who spoke next, said that the Opposition had never claimed that the old practice was founded upon the letter of any Act of Parliament, but upon that "custom of the Navy" which was referred to again and again in various statutes. He deprecated the suggestion that the apprehension of a court-martial would lead officers to play for safety and not to take risks, when in the interests of the service they ought to take them. Lord Beauchamp thought that it would not be desirable to pass such a resolution at the present time. The mere passage of the resolution would be unlikely to affect in any way the procedure of the Board of Admiralty. A similar resolution would have to be passed by the House of Commons before it could become operative.

Lord St. Aldwyn hoped that the motion would not be treated as hostile to the Admiralty or to the Government. The Opposition did not ask the House to divide upon it; and the debate was adjourned.

In the House of Commons on the same day the Attorney-General moved the second reading of the Defence of the Realm (Amendment) Bill. He admitted that the provisions of the Defence of the Realm Act were altogether novel and violated constitutional tradition. At the time it was passed, however, it

was an absolutely necessary measure; after nearly seven months' experience examination could now be made to what extent the provisions of the statute were more extreme than necessary. In the present Bill it was not proposed to surrender any powers, however novel, which were in any way required for national security. The Bill provided, however, that a citizen should in no circumstances be compelled to be tried by court-martial. He was to be given the choice of trial by a civil or military court. This right was, however, to be limited to British citizens and not to be extended either to enemy aliens or to citizens of a neutral country.

Sir Edward Carson saw a reason for great congratulation in the fact that after seven months of war the Government were able to come to the House and say that they thought less drastic legislation necessary for the detection and punishment of crime. Mr. Goldstone, the Labour member for Sunderland, said that apparently it was to the House of Lords that the country owed a vindication of the ancient privilege of trial by jury. The speeches made on this subject in the House of Lords might very well mean a postponement of an early demise of that House. Among a number of other speakers, Lord Robert Cecil agreed that anything like a permanent subjection of this country to military justice would be disastrous; but in times of popular excitement he was not sure that the liberty of the individual was best secured by trial by jury. If he himself were accused under the Defence of the Realm Act he would have some difficulty in deciding whether he would prefer to be tried by a really well-constituted military court, or by a jury which would be inflamed by violent passion and at least as subject to panic as even officers of the Army. After a few more speeches the Bill was read a second time.

On February 25 Sir Edward Grey was asked whether the recent statement of M. Sazonoff in the Duma to the effect that Russia intended permanently to occupy Constantinople was made with the approval and knowledge of His Majesty's Government. Sir Edward Grey replied that he was unaware of any such statement of M. Sazonoff. The statement made by that Minister, in the reports which he had read of his speech, was that the events on the Russo-Turkish Frontier would bring Russia nearer to the realisation of the political and economic problems bound up with the question of Russia's access to the open sea. With that aspiration the Government was in entire sympathy. Later on Mr. Tennant stated that the strength of the German Army, trained and untrained, excluding officers and officials, was estimated in 1912 at 9,898,000 men. On the report of the vote of 36,836,000*l.* on account of the Civil Services and Revenue departments, Mr. Keir Hardy called attention to the encroachments which had been made on Education bye-laws. He stated that

the laws for the protection of children in various districts were being suspended in order to find sweated labour for the agricultural interest; and there was a danger that this state of affairs might continue after the end of the war. Sir J. Yoxall agreed that thousands of children were being deprived of their only chance of education. After other speeches, Sir Harry Verney, on behalf of the Board of Agriculture, said that it was proposed to call on the farmers to furnish a proof of the dearth of labour; it was proposed also to tap other sources, such as Belgian refugees, and especially the services of women which were in every respect preferable to those of boys. After Colonel Yate had urged that cadet training should form part of the curriculum of all secondary and continuation schools, Mr. J. A. Pease said that he had approached the War Office, who intended to go into the matter with the Board of Education at the earliest opportunity.

The discussion of Mr. Meyer's commission for the purchase of War Office timber was again raised by Mr. William Young on the motion for the adjournment of the House. Mr. Harold Baker in a brief speech of three minutes said that the timber had been delivered quickly and was of good quality; but widespread disapproval was manifested in the House. Mr. J. F. Hope said that the least the commission under this contract could come to was three years of a Lord Chancellor's salary or six years of a Prime Minister's. Other members were equally critical, and Mr. Booth described the transaction as one of the most terrible scandals that had ever occurred in the history of the British Government. Mr. Beck replied that if any business men in the House cared to visit the Office of Works, every detail of the transaction would be open to their inspection. Although Mr. Meyer received large sums the country saved by his services sums that were infinitely larger. Members should have informed themselves of the facts before making reckless charges, and should not allow themselves to be used as tools by men who were disappointed of making big profits.

On March 1 Mr. Asquith announced the reply made by the Government to the German blockade of Great Britain. The House went into Committee of Supply to consider the supplementary Vote of Credit of 37,000,000*l.* to meet the expenditure on naval and military operations and other expenditure arising out of the war during the year 1914-15. Mr. Asquith reminded the Committee that the House had already sanctioned total Votes of Credit amounting to 325,000,000*l.* for the expiring financial year. It had been found that this sum was not sufficient and they were asking for a further vote of 37,000,000*l.* to cover the expenditure up to March 31. The sum of 362,000,000*l.* represented the difference between the expenditure of the country on a peace footing and its expenditure on a war footing. Of this sum approximately

275,000,000*l.* were required for the Navy and Army, which was in addition to the 80,000,000*l.* voted before the war for these purposes. The daily expenditure of the war during the period under review amounted to about 1,200,000*l.*; but this average was now exceeded, and after April 1 it was probable that the cost of the war would amount to more than 1,700,000*l.* a day.

As regards the ensuing financial year 1915-16, the Estimates presented had amounted only to 17,000*l.* for the Navy and 15,000*l.* for the Army: and the remainder of the cost of these services would be provided for out of Votes of Credit. The Vote of Credit now asked for amounted to 250,000,000*l.*, which was deemed sufficient as far as could be judged to cover all the expenditure of the war for a period of somewhat more than three months. It was the largest single Vote of Credit on record in the Annals of the House. The War Office calculated that at the beginning of April the total expenditure on Army services would be at the rate of 1,500,000*l.* per day; and on the same date the total expenditure on the Navy would amount to about 400,000*l.* per day. The aggregate expenditure on the Navy and Army at the beginning of 1915-16 would therefore be 1,900,000*l.* per day with a tendency to increase; as compared with a daily expenditure on a peace footing last year of about 220,000*l.* per day. In presenting these Votes of Credit the Government were fully convinced that the Country and Empire were determined at any cost to bring a righteous cause to a triumphant end. Recruiting continued to be satisfactory, and the Government had never been more confident than they were that day in the power as well as the will of the Allies to achieve ultimate victory.

Mr. Asquith then passed on to consider the so-called German blockade of our coasts, which he characterised as a campaign of piracy and pillage. The German Fleet was not blockading, could not and never would blockade our coasts. In reply to this step on the part of the enemy Mr. Asquith read the following statement to the Committee:—

“Germany has declared that the English Channel, the North and West Coasts of France and the waters around the British Isles are a ‘war-area,’ and has officially notified that all enemy ships found in that area will be destroyed, and that neutral vessels may be exposed to danger. This is in effect a claim to torpedo at sight, without regard to the safety of crew or passengers, any merchant vessel under any flag. As it is not in the power of the German Admiralty to maintain any surface craft in these waters, the attack can only be delivered by submarine agency. The law and custom of nations in regard to attacks on commerce have always presumed that the first duty of the captor of a merchant vessel is to bring it before a prize court, where it may be tried and where the regularity of the capture may be challenged and where neutrals may recover their cargoes. The sinking of prizes

is in itself a questionable act to be resorted to only in extraordinary circumstances and after provision has been made for the safety of all the crew or passengers—if there are passengers on board. The responsibility for discriminating between neutral and enemy vessels and between neutral and enemy cargoes obviously rests with the attacking ship, whose duty it is to verify the status and character of the vessel and cargo, and to preserve all papers before sinking or even capturing the ship. So also is the humane duty to provide for the safety of the crews of merchant vessels, whether neutral or enemy, an obligation on every belligerent. It is on this basis that all previous discussions of the law for regulating warfare at sea have proceeded.

“The German submarine fulfils none of these obligations. She enjoys no local command of the waters in which she operates, she does not take her captures within the jurisdiction of a prize court; she carries no prize crew which she can put on board the prize she seizes. She uses no effective means of discriminating between a neutral and an enemy vessel; she does not receive on board for safety the crew of the vessel she sinks; her methods of warfare are therefore entirely outside the scope of any of the international instruments regulating operations against commerce in time of war. The German declaration substitutes indiscriminate destruction for regulated capture. Germany is adopting these methods against peaceful traders and non-combatant crews with the avowed object of preventing commodities of all kinds, including food for the civil population, from reaching or leaving the British Isles and Northern France.

“Her opponents are therefore driven to frame retaliatory measures in order in their turn to prevent commodities of any kind from reaching or leaving the German Empire. These measures will, however, be enforced by the British and French Governments without risk to neutral ships or to neutral or non-combatant lives, and with strict observance of the dictates of humanity. The British and French Governments will therefore hold themselves free to detain, and take into port, ships carrying goods of presumed enemy destination, ownership or origin. It is not intended to confiscate such vessels or cargoes unless they would be otherwise liable to confiscation. Vessels with cargoes which have sailed before this date will not be affected.”

Mr. Asquith went on to state that he had heard whispers of possible terms of peace. He repeated the terms of his speech at the Guildhall last November, to the effect that we should never sheath the sword until Belgium had recovered in full measure all and more than all that she had sacrificed; until France was adequately secured against the menace of aggression; until the rights of the smaller nationalities of Europe were placed upon an unassailable foundation; and until the military domination of Prussia was wholly and finally destroyed.

Mr. Bonar Law expressed the warm support of the Opposition to the measures announced by the Government. He admitted the truth of Mr. Asquith's statement that no Minister in the course of our history had even presented estimates like these to any House of Commons; but he added that at no time in the course of our history was any Minister so certain of carrying the full support of the House of Commons and the country. He commented on the remarkable achievements of the nation and upon the great work of the Army which was by far the biggest army that had ever been commanded by a British general; but in addition to those achievements which had been to some extent anticipated, we had created for the purposes of this war an army which from the point of view even of numbers could compare with the great continental armies now in the field. We owed that gigantic conception largely to one man. He deplored the strikes to which the Prime Minister had referred, though he would not say whether the blame should be laid upon the masters or the men. He urged a more effectual mobilisation of our industrial resources, and referred to the various violations on the part of Germany of the rules of war and the dictates of humanity. Yet not a single neutral Power had lodged any protest against these proceedings. It was therefore incumbent upon us to refuse to allow our hands to be tied by rules which the enemy had broken. The full exercise of our sea-power might be irritating to neutral countries, but our forefathers had not on that account given up any of the advantages which that sea-power conferred upon them. The statement of the Prime Minister was therefore exactly what he had hoped to hear; the measures to be taken were absolutely necessary not only in our own interests but also in those of our Allies.

Mr. Hodge on behalf of the Labour party strongly endorsed the Prime Minister's appeal to the workers, and said that strikes or lock-outs in this great crisis were inconceivable. Lord Robert Cecil expressed the opinion that 3s. 4½d. a day was a very excessive billeting payment in many districts; he paid a warm tribute to the Labour leaders, and with regard to sport hoped the Prime Minister would interfere to prevent the Ascot races from being held. Secrecy had been overdone during the war in a most disgusting way; it was folly to speak as if Germany was starving and our troops marching from victory to victory, when, as a matter of fact, they were struggling desperately. Mr. W. Thorne thought that the Government had no reason to complain against organised workers of whom about 10 per cent. had enlisted. The Vote was then agreed to as also was the Vote of Credit for 250,000,000l., after Mr. Tennant had stated that the War Office would not authorise a uniform for the volunteer training corps, on the ground that it was very undesirable to provide an easier job for men than that of fighting for their country.

On March 2 Mr. Asquith moved the second reading of the

University Bill. He stated that the total number of members from the two ancient Universities serving in the Army was approximately 6,000. At Cambridge, the number of undergraduates in residence had fallen from 3,181 to 1,227. At Oxford, out of eighty-nine of the "blues" for the year 1913-14, eighty were on active service; and the Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge had written that the best of every class and type of the undergraduates were joining the Army. The Universities were therefore threatened with grave financial embarrassment; and in the present Bill they sought power to postpone the date of the determination of scholarships, and to make up the deficit in the tutorial fees by taking money from their endowments or by postponing repayment of capital sums borrowed. Power was also sought to enable both the Universities and Colleges to make emergency statutes without the usual procedure before the Privy Council.

Mr. Long on behalf of the Opposition cordially supported the proposals of the Prime Minister; and Sir Joseph Larmor, the member for Cambridge University, likewise spoke warmly in favour of the measure, saying that it would be the duty of the Universities after the war to maintain the standard of British learning and science. The second reading was then agreed to; and the House went into Committee on the Defence of the Realm (Amendment) Bill. On Clause 1 which provided that a British citizen charged with an offence under the Defence of the Realm Act, 1914, should be entitled to claim to be tried by a civil court instead of by a court-martial, Mr. Trevelyan moved an amendment to extend the privilege to any person who was not an alien enemy. The amendment was deprecated by the Attorney-General, but was supported by Mr. Maccallum Scott, Sir W. R. Adkins, Lord Robert Cecil, Mr. Denman and others. Mr. Duke, however, upheld the decision of the Attorney-General, saying that the limitation proposed by the Government was necessary for the protection of the country; and after some further debate the amendment was negatived without a division. Mr. Ellis Davies then moved an amendment entitling a person arrested to have the nature of the offence with which he was charged communicated to him in writing within forty-eight hours of his arrest. Mr. J. Henderson cited the case of a Scottish skipper who on November 24 had the misfortune to run into a British submarine. The skipper and the whole of the crew were put into jail and kept there until December 10 when they were released without any charge having been framed against them. The Attorney-General agreed that the general nature of the charge should be communicated to the person as soon as possible after his arrest; and the amendment was withdrawn in favour of another amendment by the Attorney-General to this effect.

On March 3, the House of Commons discussed a motion by Mr. Joynson-Hicks, who asked that all enemy aliens in London

should be interned either in workhouses or at the Crystal Palace ; that all aliens in prohibited areas should be removed, including men, women and children ; and that the regulation of aliens should be in the hands of one Minister responsible to the House. Mr. McKenna declared in reply that since November 11 the responsibility both for the internment and the release of enemy aliens had rested solely with the military authorities. Lord Kitchener was not willing to relinquish that responsibility. The Home Secretary contended that it was impossible to treat mere nationality as an offence ; he had had before him many cases of men and women of technically German nationality who were as bitter enemies of Germany and as strong admirers of this country as any member of Parliament.

Mr. Bonar Law urged that the House had a right to ask that every man and woman of German birth should be regarded with suspicion, and that the Government should act upon the assumption that if they got the chance they would help their own country against us. He was convinced that the Government had underestimated the serious nature of the situation, for he believed that espionage had never played so large a part in any previous war. Sir Henry Dalziel affirmed that the Government knew of the existence of a regular spy system in this country, and stated that spies were being regularly paid by drafts on various banks. Many speakers brought to the notice of the House allegations of the escape of suspicious persons in consequence of the overlapping of authority. Mr. Butcher mentioned the case of a lady who was living in a prohibited area in Yorkshire. Although married to an Englishman she was closely related to a high German officer and was an intimate friend of Grand Admiral von Tirpitz. She was removed at the instance of the local authorities, but was subsequently allowed to return on the authority of somebody in London. Mr. Ronald McNeil recounted to the House an interview at Brighton four years ago with Baron von Bissing in which the latter was alleged to have stated that he was there ostensibly as a journalist, but that in reality he was in the service of the German Foreign Office. After some further speeches the motion was negatived.

On March 8 the Naval Discipline Bill was read a second time. There was some criticism of the proposal in the Bill to abolish the death penalty as a punishment for striking or attempting to strike an officer. Dr. Macnamara explained that death would, however, continue to be the maximum penalty for mutiny or incitement to mutiny, for spying or treacherously aiding the enemy, and for misconduct or desertion in the presence of the enemy. Clause II. of the Bill imposed a maximum penalty of two years imprisonment for absence without leave in war time. The Bill likewise restored the preamble which had appeared in every Naval Discipline Act since 1661 until struck out by the Statute

Law Revision Act of 1893. The words were: "Whereas it is expedient to amend the law relating to the government of the Navy whereon under the good providence of God the wealth, safety and strength of the Kingdom chiefly depend, be it enacted." Mr. Lambert also moved the second reading of the Naval Marriages Bill which provided that a marriage might take place in any locality in the kingdom instead of taking place as heretofore in the parish where the woman resided. On the same day, the Solicitor-General defended the action of the Censor's Department in preventing the publication in the *Daily Express* of Canadian comment on the appointment of a certain member of the House to the command of a brigade including Canadian troops. Sir Stanley Buckmaster expressed the opinion that the publication of complaints against officers would be gravely subversive of military discipline and detrimental to the best interests of the nation.

On March 9 Mr. Lloyd George surprised the House of Commons by a new Defence of the Realm Bill of far more drastic a character than any of its predecessors. Its object indeed was no less than the mobilisation by the Government of our industrial resources. In introducing the measure the Chancellor of the Exchequer insisted on the vital importance to this country of an increased output of munitions of war; for upon this depended not only the duration but even the success of the war. The Government had already obtained the power to take over any works in which war material was being produced. They now sought a similar power in respect of works in which war material was not being produced at present, but which were capable of being used for that purpose. This additional power was asked for, not because the Government anticipated difficulties with employers, but simply in order to enable employers to get out of any difficulties which they might otherwise experience when called upon by the Government to throw everything they possessed into the common stock. Mr. Bonar Law observed that the powers demanded in the Bill were probably the most drastic that had ever been put to any House of Commons; they enabled the Government to tell any manufacturer what he was and what he was not to make. If these tremendous powers were abused, incalculable harm would be done to the industries of the country. Still he was not prepared to offer any opposition to the proposal; the only thing to be done was to give the Government full power to use to the utmost all the resources of the country, including its industrial resources. He appealed again to the Government to use the organising capacity of the business community. In reply the Chancellor of the Exchequer assured the House that it certainly was not proposed to execute this project without full consultation with all manufacturers. The Government were on the look-out for a good strong business man with some push

and go in him, who would be able to put the thing through; and they anticipated no difficulty when once it was understood that the urgent needs of the country were at stake. After the second reading had been agreed to, consideration was postponed to the following day when Mr. Lloyd George again defended the Bill in its committee stage. He agreed that the measure would lead to the subjection of business men to inconvenience; that was inevitable in a state of war. It was impossible to carry on war while business was still allowed to be conducted as usual. He proposed as a substitute for the familiar cry "Business as usual" a new cry of "Victory as usual." Victory could not be gained unless everybody in the community was prepared to suffer all kinds of inconvenience, discomfort, and if necessary sacrifice. He did not think therefore that those who were affected by the Defence of the Realm legislation could hope to have the same complete measure of compensation that would be expected in times of peace. It was essential, Mr. Lloyd George continued, that we should increase enormously our output of munitions; he contended that the Government had done all they could, short of taking powers to extend their facilities for manufacturing munitions. They had been criticised for waiting too long before taking these powers. In his view they would not have been justified in bringing in a drastic Bill, unless they felt that they could not get on very much further without it. Whatever the inconvenience might be to individuals the national need was so overwhelming that he hoped that even those who were disappointed in the matter of contracts would put up with the position for the time being. He solemnly warned the House that all those who knew the military position understood how much depended on an overwhelming supply of explosives at the critical moment.

Mr. Bonar Law could not agree that the country was not quite ready for the mobilisation of its industry at the outbreak of the war. He insisted that, if the Government had asked for these powers six months previously, they would have obtained them. He believed that the effect of the passage of the Bill would be that there would be no need for the Government to take over works of any kind. The knowledge that the Government had the power would in itself be a sufficient motive, not only to bring the patriotism of manufacturers into play but to give them protection against articles of association or anything else in their way. In other words, he was convinced that the Government by passing the Bill would simply get more out of the works in the ordinary way under the control of the owners.

The debate which followed turned chiefly on the question of compensation for those affected by the operation of the Bill. Mr. Bonar Law claimed that it was not a question of compensation as an act of grace, but as a right, wherever real damage had been done. Mr. Lloyd George then announced that he hoped before the Easter

recess to appoint a commission to consider claims for compensation.

Meanwhile the one remaining domestic controversy in the country was laid to rest. For some time past the Duke of Devonshire had had on the paper of the House of Lords a Bill which sought to place the Welsh Church Act on the same footing as the Home Rule Act. On March 9 he formally moved the second reading of his Bill; and Lord Beauchamp immediately announced that the Government had found themselves unable to ignore the feeling which the Bill had aroused. They had entered into negotiations with the various parties interested in the subject, and now at the fifty-ninth minute of the eleventh hour they believed they were able to suggest a compromise which might meet with general approval. They proposed that Disestablishment should not take place until six months after the end of the war; this proposal being subject to the condition that, before the date of Disestablishment as fixed by the new Bill, no proposals for appeal or amendment of the Act would be made or countenanced except with the consent of both parties. The Bill further proposed to give to the Representative Body the value of the life interest of those benefices which were vacant on September 18, 1914, and of those which became vacant between that date and the date of Disestablishment.

Lord Beauchamp's Bill promptly took the place of that of the Duke of Devonshire. Lord Lansdowne, on behalf of the Opposition, welcomed the conciliatory attitude of the Government. The offer, he thought, was one which might certainly be accepted as the basis of compromise; the condition attached to the acceptance of the offer seemed to him to be reasonable if it was interpreted in the sense that it had reference only to the making of proposals in Parliament and not to discussions outside. Later in the debate Lord Crewe, speaking for the Government, accepted this interpretation; and the Bill was rapidly passed through all its stages and sent to the Commons.

The Welsh Liberal members showed at first no disposition to fall in with the Compromise Bill. They held a meeting on the following day, and told the Home Secretary that they regarded the Bill as a breach of Mr. Asquith's undertaking not to introduce contentious legislation; and that if the second reading was moved they would both speak and vote against the proposals. The group made it clear, however, that they had not gone so far as to demand that the Bill should be dropped, but only that it should be postponed. Accordingly when the second reading came up for discussion in the House of Commons on March 15, Mr. Asquith announced that it would be postponed until after the adjournment, and that he would himself in the meantime discuss the matter with the Welsh members. A debate, however, took place on the motion for the adjournment of the House. Lord Robert Cecil

moved that it should re-assemble on March 23 instead of April 14, and took the opportunity of pressing for a more immediate passage of the Postponement Bill. The ensuing debate aroused considerable heat, and Mr. Asquith made a conciliatory speech in which he impressed the need for preserving the unity of the House. After further speeches by Mr. Bonar Law and Mr. Lloyd George, the amendment of Lord Robert Cecil was withdrawn.

The third reading of the Consolidated Fund (No. 2) Bill was taken on March 11 and gave rise to an instructive debate on the Army. Mr. Long urged that while the nation was willing to find money by the sack for the war, it was unanimous in its wish that everything that money could do should be done for those who were fighting at the front. Yet he had had to bring before the War Office many cases of injustice to soldiers in the field. He made several specific complaints against the War Office in addition to his general charge against the Government that they were treating the public as very stupid children rather than as grown-up people. He suggested that the present system of recruiting occupied an unnecessarily large number of officers, and he said that there were enough officers buying horses in America to supply a whole division of the Army.

In the course of a passage strongly condemning the promotion of amateurs over the heads of professional soldiers, Mr. Long disclaimed any intention of reflecting on General Seely and Lord Salisbury, both of whom had worked hard. Not only were the plums of the Army falling to amateurs rather than to professionals, but regimental officers were not receiving the promotion due to them. He protested against the refusal of the Government on technical grounds to pay the National Reserve the promised bonus of five pounds. His conclusion was that to treat soldiers in this way was a negation of everything for which the country was asking. Later in the debate Mr. Hogge called attention to the domestic affairs of the Empire Battalion of the Royal Fusiliers. Mr. Tennant, who replied on the debate for the War Office, deprecated discussion of this matter on the ground that the whole question would have to be gone into very searchingly by a committee. Dealing with Mr. Long's criticisms, the Under-Secretary explained that the recruiting officers were retired officers who had volunteered their services. The War Office was satisfied that the horses obtained in America were excellent value. As to promotion, the conferring of an immediate benefit on a certain number of officers might mean the infliction of injustice on a large number of others. He promised to inquire into a statement which surprised him, that wounded officers at home from the front had been reduced to half-pay.

On March 15 Lord Kitchener made one of his unusual appearances in the House of Lords. His purpose was to warn working men on the dangers of drink, irregular time-keeping,

slack work and trade-union restrictions. He said that the output of munitions was not only unequal to the necessities, but did not fulfil expectations, as a very large number of orders had not been completed by the dates on which they were promised. The work of the new armies as well as of the forces in the field had been seriously hampered by the failure to obtain sufficient labour, and by delays in the production of the necessary plant, largely due to the enormous demands of Britain and her Allies. He complimented the workmen generally on their loyalty, but regretted to add that there had been instances where absence, irregular time-keeping and slack work had led to a marked diminution of output. In some cases the temptations of drink accounted for this failure to work up to the high standard expected; the restrictions of trade unions had also added to his difficulties in making the best use of labour. Lord Kitchener continued that he had heard rumours that the workmen in some factories had an idea that the war was going so well that there was no necessity for them to work their hardest. "I can only say," he went on, "that the supply of war material at the present moment and for the next two or three months is causing me very serious anxiety." He wished the workmen to realise that it was absolutely essential, not only that the arrears in the deliveries of our munitions should be wiped off, but that the output of every round of ammunition was of the utmost importance. The new Defence of the Realm Bill for the mobilisation of the industrial resources of the country was in his opinion imperatively necessary. He agreed that Labour might very rightly ask that its patriotic work should not be used to inflate the profits of the directors and shareholders of the great industrial and armament firms. He announced that the Government were arranging a system under which the important armament firms would come under Government control. It was their hope that workmen who worked regularly by keeping good time should reap some of the benefits which the war automatically conferred on these great companies. He felt strongly that the men working long hours in the shops by day and by night, week in and week out, were doing their duty for their King and country in a like manner with those who had joined the Army for active service in the field; he was therefore glad to be able to state that the King had approved that where such service had been thoroughly, loyally and continuously rendered, the award of a medal would be granted on the successful termination of the war.

Passing to the operations of our troops, Lord Kitchener extolled the part taken by the Indian and Canadian troops around Neuve Chapelle. He stated that substantial reinforcements, including a Canadian, North Midland and 2nd London Divisions, had been sent to France. The health of the troops had been remarkably good and their freedom from enteric fever constituted a striking testimony to the value of inoculation.

Parliament met for the last time before Easter on March 16, when the Government suffered a technical defeat in the House of Lords. The discussion arose out of a proposal to create an Executive Council for the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh. This proposal had originally been carried in the Viceroy's Executive Council by a majority of one; and three members, Sir Harcourt Butler, Sir R. Craddock, and Sir R. Carlyle had recorded powerful minutes of dissent. A draft Proclamation creating the New Council was laid before the House of Lords on February 2, and Lord Macdonnell on March 16 moved that an humble address be presented to His Majesty to withhold his consent during the continuance of the war from this draft proclamation. Lord Crewe, while regretting in some respects any delay in the creation of the Council, said that the Government would not regard it as a crucial matter, unless the rejection of the proposal meant that it would have to be brought up again entirely *de novo*. The motion was, however, supported by Lord Sydenham and Lord Curzon and was ultimately carried on a division by 47 votes to 26. On the same day both Houses of Parliament adjourned until April 14.

In the meantime there was occurring in the country a considerable amount of industrial unrest. In various trades, especially those connected with the manufacture of munitions of war, heavy demands had been made upon the working capacities of the men; and they held that they were not receiving a proper share of the large profits flowing in to their employers. At the beginning of March there was a strike of engineers on the Clyde in which about 10,000 men were involved. The strikers demanded an increase of 2*d.* an hour and rejected an offer of 3*d.* an hour made on behalf of the employers. The Government intimated to the men through Sir George Askwith that work must be promptly resumed; and promised that arrangements would at once be made for the representatives of the parties to meet the Committee on Production in Engineering and Shipbuilding Establishments, in order to refer the matter in dispute to a court of arbitration. The strike committee thereupon recommended the men to return to work; but in the event of not receiving the full 2*d.* an hour extra for which they asked, to embark upon a "stay-in" strike, that is to remain at work but do as little as they possibly could. On March 8 a meeting took place between the Government Committee on production in the engineering and shipbuilding industries and representatives of the employers and trade unions concerned. Most of the men's societies concerned in the strike agreed to the proposal to submit the matter to a court of arbitration; but the engineers' society were forced by their rules to submit the question to a ballot of all their members before acquiescing in the proposal. On March 17 it was announced that the result of the ballot was 5,616 votes against 1,522 votes

—a majority of 4,094 in favour of accepting as final the award to be made by the Government Arbitration Committee. This award was made known on March 24, and gave much disappointment to the men, who, however, had committed themselves to accepting it. It gave them an advance of 1*d.* an hour in the case of time-work and of 10 per cent. in the case of piece-work, and was thus very little better than what they had been offered by the employers.

Other troubles were threatened among shipyard labourers on the Clyde, among Scottish oil-workers, and in the shipyards at Southampton. The latter dispute was quickly settled between the employers and men without the necessity for outside interference. The men had originally demanded an advance of 5*s.* a week and had rejected an offer of 3*s.* a week; they now accepted an amended offer of 4*s.* a week. The same offer was accepted by the labourers at Messrs. Vickers' Naval Construction Works at Barrow. On March 17 the Miners' Federation of Great Britain decided to ask for an immediate increase of wages to the extent of 20 per cent. on their present earnings. These troubles gave considerable anxiety at the time.

Under such circumstances a conference of representatives of thirty-five trade unions was called to meet the Chancellor of the Exchequer and the President of the Board of Trade at the Treasury on March 17. Mr. Lloyd George, in opening the conference, said that they did not wish to consider any particular trade dispute, but the general position in reference to maintaining the necessary output of munitions. He pointed out the lesson of Neuve Chapelle in showing that the duration of the war depended upon the rate at which munitions could be turned out. He announced that they proposed to impose a limitation on the profits of employers; and with regard to the workman he laid before them the proposition that no strike or lock-out should take place during the war on any work for Government purposes. In the event of any dispute which could not be decided by the parties concerned, the matter should be decided by an impartial tribunal nominated by the Government. He proposed also that during the war all restrictions on output should be suspended; and finally he referred to the question of drink which was beginning once again to occupy public attention. He said that reports had been received both from the Admiralty and the War Office to the effect that the drink evil was very serious, and gravely interfering with the amount of the output. That was a very disastrous thing and required very strong action on the part of the Government. Such action could not effectively be taken without the support of the Labour leaders throughout the country; but that support he felt sure the Government would get.

The Conference was concluded two days later, when a memorandum was issued containing the proposals which the workmen's

representatives agreed to recommend to their members. The following were its chief points:—

During the war period there should in no case be any stoppage of work upon munitions and equipments of war; all differences on wages or conditions of employment should be the subject of conferences between the parties. In all cases of failure to reach a settlement of disputes by the parties directly concerned or their representatives, the matter in dispute should be dealt with under any one of the three following alternatives—(a) the Committee on Production; (b) a single arbitrator agreed upon by the parties or appointed by the Board of Trade; (c) a Court of Arbitration upon which labour is represented equally with the employers.

An Advisory Committee representative of the workers engaged in production for Government requirements was to be appointed by the Government. During the war period the present trade practices should be relaxed; and the relaxation of existing demarcation restrictions or the admission of semi-skilled or female labour should not affect adversely the rates customarily paid for the work.

A strike of the dock labourers at Liverpool and Birkenhead afforded Lord Kitchener an occasion for giving advice to the men. On March 21 he handed a letter to Mr. James Sexton, in which he said that he was surprised to find that there was a section among the dockers at Liverpool who still refused to work overtime during the week and on Saturday. He felt sure that these men could hardly realise that their action in thus congesting the docks and delaying munitions of war and food required by our men at the front was having a very serious and dangerous effect and must be stopped. He hoped that this message to the men would put things right for the future. At the present time we looked to every British man whoever he might be to do all in his power to help in carrying on the war to a successful conclusion; and in this the dockers could do their share and thus help their comrades fighting in France. "If this appeal has no effect, I shall have to consider the steps that will have to be taken to ensure what is required at Liverpool being done."

Lord Kitchener's appeal did not have the effect that was hoped. On March 30 the dockers held a meeting in the course of which Mr. Sexton appealed to the men on patriotic and other grounds to enter into an agreement by which they would receive an increase of pay, but would be paid that increase only once a week. Nevertheless the dockers adhered to their determination not to work during week-ends unless the shipowners paid them on Saturday for work done on Friday night and on Saturday each week.

As already stated the Government and the entire country were now very seriously concerned about the loss of time caused by drink among men engaged in the production and distribution of

war material. The battle of Neuve Chapelle appeared to have established the fact that the rapidity with which the war could be brought to a successful conclusion depended very largely upon the output of ammunition. The men engaged in the work were naturally receiving higher wages than they had been accustomed to in time of peace; and this increase of their wealth combined (as some thought) with the effects of fatigue due to working overtime led them to indulge in drink to a very grave excess. It was believed that drastic measures of some kind would have to be taken for limiting the facilities for obtaining drink, wherever interference was being occasioned in the work of military production. On March 29 a deputation representative of the leading shipbuilding firms in the country was received at the Treasury by the Chancellor of the Exchequer and the Secretary for Scotland. The deputation was unanimous in urging that, in order to meet the immediate national requirements and the urgent necessities of the position, there should be a total prohibition, during the period of the war, of the sale of excisable liquors. Speaking with the experience of from twenty-five to forty years the members of the deputation believed that 80 per cent. of the present avoidable loss of time could be ascribed to no other cause than drink.

Mr. Lloyd George in his reply said that nothing but root and branch methods would be of the slightest avail in dealing with this evil. "We are," he said, "fighting Germany, Austria and Drink; and as far as I can see the greatest of these three deadly foes is Drink." He added that success in the war was now purely a question of munitions; and mentioned that the King had permitted him to say that His Majesty was very deeply concerned on the question.

About the same time various measures were taken to limit the evil of drink among soldiers at home; and the General Officer commanding the London district placed public-houses near the principal railway stations in London out of bounds to all members of His Majesty's forces. Public attention continued to be centred on the question of drink, until it finally culminated in the drastic measures proposed by the Government after Easter.

The temper of the country at this date was manifested by the considerable sensation that was aroused by a sermon preached by Dr. Lyttelton, Headmaster of Eton, at St. Margaret's, Westminster. He said that we had no right to expect that the Germans should hold any other feeling towards England than that of vindictive wrath. If we were going to act as a Christian nation we were bound to apply the principle of Christian charity on a scale to which we have never risen before. It had been proposed by men of weight that when we said the Kiel Canal should be internationalised we should couple with it a promise that we would internationalise Gibraltar. If we took the view that we were not going to part with a single inch of territory or a single privilege,

we were abandoning the principles of Christianity and taking our stand once more on the principle of competition.

The address was received with universal expressions of dissent, and a warm controversy ensued in *The Times* before the matter was finally laid to rest.

CHAPTER II.

THE END OF THE LIBERAL MINISTRY.

ON Easter Monday the demand for measures for the increase of temperance in time of war received a powerful new impetus by the action of His Majesty the King. On March 30 the King had addressed a letter to Mr. Lloyd George expressing his "deepest concern" at "the grave situation now existing in our armament factories," and adding that "the continuance of such a state of things must inevitably result in the prolongation of the horrors and burdens of this terrible war." The letter concluded: "If it be deemed advisable, the King will be prepared to set the example by giving up all alcoholic liquor himself and issuing orders against its consumption in the Royal Household, so that no difference shall be made so far as His Majesty is concerned between the treatment of rich and poor in this question."

Accordingly on Easter Monday (April 5), it was announced officially that "by the King's command no wines, spirits or beer will be consumed in any of His Majesty's houses after to-day (Tuesday, April 6)." On the day following the publication of the King's letter, his example was instantly followed by Lord Kitchener, who gave instructions that during the continuance of the war alcoholic liquor was not to be used in his household. For some time the Cabinet were unable to come to any decision as to what measures should be brought before Parliament; but it was known that the complete prohibition of the sale of wines and spirits was one of the proposals under discussion. Inquiries made by the Government tended to show that the evils of drink, which were partial and local, were attributable mainly to the consumption of spirits and the inferior and more potent kinds of beer. The consumption of wine did not directly affect the problem at all; but its prohibition was defended on the ground that if the poor man's drink was to be cut off, the same restriction must be applied in the case of the rich. It was even believed that the Government were considering, among other plans of action, the expropriation of the whole of the licensed houses in the kingdom. There is no doubt that at all events proposals of the most radical character were considered. As time went on, the Cabinet began to doubt the practicability of such extreme measures as those suggested; the proposals of the Government were ultimately announced to the House of Commons on April 29,

It has already been stated that the German prisoners, captured from submarines which had been engaged in sinking merchant vessels, were not accorded by the Admiralty the same treatment as other prisoners captured in the more usual operations of war. On March 17 the Secretary of State at Washington received from the German Foreign Office a telegram requesting him to ascertain through the American Embassy in London whether this special treatment of submarine prisoners was true. The German Government lodged a strong protest against any differentiation in the treatment of prisoners, and threatened to subject a captured British army officer to harsher treatment for each member of a submarine crew made prisoner in England. In reply to the note of the American Ambassador, Sir Edward Grey stated that the officers and men rescued from the German submarines U8 and U12 were segregated from other prisoners of war; but that they were treated with humanity, given opportunities for exercise, provided with German books, subjected to no forced labour, and were better fed and clothed than British prisoners of equal rank in Germany. Sir Edward Grey went on to point out that although during the present war more than a thousand officers and men of the German Navy had been rescued from the sea, no case had occurred of any officer or man of the Royal Navy being rescued by the Germans. Notwithstanding this reply the Germans proceeded to place under arrest thirty-nine English officers in Germany, as a reprisal for the treatment of their submarine crews.

During the first week in April a scheme was brought into operation for organising the dock-workers of Liverpool as civilian soldiers. A Dockers' Battalion of the Liverpool regiment was formed under the command of Lord Derby, to carry out Government work in the port. The men were subject to military law, but liable to be employed for home service only, and they received both civil and Army pay, with a guarantee to each man of a minimum wage of 42s. a week. The force was governed strictly by trade union rules and limited to members of the Dockers' Union. The inauguration of the battalion took place on April 12, when 350 men who had been enrolled were reviewed by Lord Derby. At the same time the week-end strikes of dockers at Birkenhead came to an end.

Both Houses of Parliament re-assembled on April 14. The House of Commons sat for little more than half an hour, and this time was taken up by the answers of Ministers to the questions addressed to them. Several of these alluded to the regulation of the drink trade. Mr. Tennant, Under-Secretary for War, said that the only intoxicant permitted to be sold in canteens was beer. A demand by Mr. Wing for the abolition of the sale of drink in the refreshment rooms and bars of the House was met by a promise from Mr. Asquith to give time for the discussion of this question in the House. With regard to the question of post-

poning the Imperial Conference on account of the war, Mr. Harcourt, Secretary for the Colonies, made an important statement. He said the Prime Ministers of the Dominions had been informed that it was the intention of the Government to consult them "most fully, and if possible personally" when the time came to discuss possible terms of peace. "The Government," Mr. Harcourt added, "intend to observe the spirit as well as the letter of this declaration, which I believe has given complete satisfaction to the Governments of the Dominions." The only other subject which interested members was the reading of a letter from Sir H. D. Erskine, Sergeant-at-Arms, expressing his wish to resign after more than forty years spent in the service of the House. It was agreed in both Houses to meet in future only three days a week.

On April 15 a question was asked by Mr. Hogge as to the casualties incurred during the war. Mr. Tennant announced that the total of war casualties reported up to April 11 was 139,347, showing an increase of 35,347 since the previous announcement on February 4. Mr. Asquith then announced the formation of a Government Committee for securing the greatest and best possible output of munitions of war from all the available productive resources of the nation. The Chancellor of the Exchequer was Chairman, and the other members included Mr. Balfour, Mr. E. S. Montagu, Mr. G. M. Booth, Sir Frederick Black and Admiral Tudor (representing the Admiralty), Major-General Sir Stanley von Donop and Mr. Harold Baker, M.P. (representing the War Office), Mr. Arthur Henderson, M.P., Chairman of the Labour party, and Sir H. Llewellyn Smith, Permanent Secretary to the Board of Trade. Further criticism was then directed against the appointment of Mr. Meyer. On the vote to complete the sum of 159,500*l.* for the Office of Works and Public Buildings, Mr. Young condemned the manner in which the timber contract had been treated by the Government. His criticism was endorsed by Mr. Booth, who complained that he had been unable to obtain sufficient details of the transaction from the Office of Works. He appealed to the leader of the Opposition for some expression of opinion. The criticisms were answered by the Attorney-General; and Mr. Bonar Law then said that he was unable altogether to associate himself with the remarks directed against the Government. In normal times such a contract would have been impossible; but he doubted whether Mr. Booth would have made the speech he had if the times were normal. If there were no worse contracts than this, he thought the House of Commons had good reason to congratulate itself; nor did he see how Mr. Meyer could have acted otherwise than honestly with the Government. For him to have acted otherwise than honestly would have been a crime as unimaginable as that of taking candy from a child. Mr. Young then offered to withdraw his motion, but objection was

taken to this course, and it was finally negated without a division.

On April 20 an important meeting of workers engaged in the output of munitions of war took place at Newcastle; and the Prime Minister delivered an address, the essence of which may be summarised in the words "Deliver the goods." Mr. Asquith said he had come to the north-east coast because in no other area in the British Empire were our national fortunes so intimately bound up with the efforts, energies and self-sacrifice of those who were there called upon to give their best services to the State. He stated once again the British case for entering into the war, declared that there was no flagging in the national spirit, and then coming to the immediate purpose of his speech said that the war was not only one of men but of material. The miner, the shipbuilder, the engineer, the iron and textile worker, the docker and every one who could help to maintain and increase the supply of the munitions, upon which the efficiency of the fighting force depended, was in as true a sense as sailors and soldiers a patriot and a combatant. Mr. Asquith declared that this was the nation's war, and that no man was worthy of the name of British citizen who was not taking his part. He denied that the operations in the field had been crippled because of a want of ammunition, and also repudiated the suggestion that the Government had only recently become alive to the importance and urgency of work upon munitions. The urgency of the situation could be explained without resort to recrimination or blame; it was due to the unprecedented scale upon which ammunition on both sides was being expended—a scale greatly in advance of the forecasts of the best experts—and to the deficiency of skilled labour in the trades most closely concerned. The position required what he called mutuality of sacrifice between men, masters and taxpayers. The first deficiency to be made good, continued Mr. Asquith, was that of labour in the factories engaged in manufacturing munitions of war. He indicated that men should and would be taken from civil to state contracts; and that men also would be transferred from the less to the more urgent state contracts. The second step would be still further to broaden the basis of production by utilising works at present devoted to other purposes for the manufacture of munitions and their component parts. He made it plain that the appeal was to a wider audience than that before him.

The same subject was dealt with at length in the House of Commons on the following day (April 21). With the authority of Lord Kitchener, Mr. Lloyd George lifted the curtain on some of the secrets of the war. "The Committee of Imperial Defence," he said, "has always proceeded upon the assumption that the Expeditionary Force would be six divisions. After eight months of war there are more than six times as many men out there fully equipped and supplied with adequate ammunition, and every man

who has fallen has been replaced." He said that our artillery had spent almost as much ammunition in the fortnight's battle around Neuve Chapelle as during the whole Boer War. From 2,500 to 3,000 firms were being employed in the production of munitions. Taking the figure 20 as representing our output of artillery ammunition in September, the output in the succeeding months was:—

| | |
|---------------|---------------|
| October 90. | January 186. |
| November 90. | February 256. |
| December 156. | March 388. |

The production of high explosives had been placed on a footing which relieved the Government of all anxiety and enabled them also largely to supply our Allies. He drew attention to the "prodigious" expansion of the British military forces and the "stupendous" work accomplished by the organising genius of Lord Kitchener. "For the first time," he said, "we have an Army on a Continental scale, raised, officered, equipped and provided with munitions in eight months of war." He dwelt on the unprecedented expenditure of artillery ammunition which marked the present war and the new importance given to high explosive shells as against shrapnel by the general adoption of siege methods. From these new conditions sprang the problem of producing munitions not only on a much larger scale than ever before but of a different kind. At the beginning of October the Government took the first steps towards meeting this need and a Committee of the Cabinet was appointed to consider how it should be done. Mr. Lloyd George went on to state that it was decided on the advice of the large armament firms to extend the system of sub-contracting, the larger and more experienced firms retaining the more delicate work and exercising supervision over the less experienced. In December, however, it was discovered that contractors were likely to be late in fulfilling their orders owing to lack of labour. Efforts made through the labour exchanges to transfer men to armament works did not meet with much success; accordingly in March the Defence of the Realm Bill was introduced to enable the Government to take over engineering works. This "was the second best course."

Mr. Lloyd George touched lightly on the drink question; he adhered to his previous statements that measures were necessary to restrain the small minority of workmen who could not control themselves; but he added an assurance that the Government would approach the question with the sole object of increasing the output of munitions and not from the point of view of "persons who want to advance any particular idea or notion."

Mr. Bonar Law expressed the general feeling of the House when he declared himself "quite satisfied" with the statement. He was less satisfied with the Prime Minister's speech at Newcastle. How he asked was that speech to be reconciled with

Lord Kitchener's statement that "the output is not equal to our necessities"? He surmised that the real object of Ministers a few weeks ago in proclaiming our shortage of munitions from the housetops was to bring home to the people the gravity of the struggle. Would not a better way be to give the country more news? "Let the country know," he said, "of reverses as well as successes; people can stand the truth."

A few days after this debate it was announced that a War Office Armaments Output Committee had been appointed, consisting of Lord Kitchener; Major-General Sir Stanley B. von Donop; Sir Herbert J. Walker, Chairman of the Railways Executive Committee; Sir Algernon Firth, President of the Associated Chambers of Commerce; Mr. George M. Booth; and Mr. Allan M. Smith, Secretary of the Engineering Employers' Federation. The functions of the Committee were "to arrange for the increase in the production of armament and munitions of war."

On April 20 Lord Curzon in the House of Lords endeavoured to obtain more information about the campaigns on the outposts of the Empire. Lord Crewe stated in reply that the general principle in operation was that no detailed account of any military operations ought to be given until the despatch of the Commander-in-Chief covering the particular operations had been received and published in the *London Gazette*. This rule was very similar to that observed among our Allies. In the House of Commons on the same day the Chancellor of the Exchequer said in reply to a question by Mr. Tickler that the Government were not of the opinion that there was any ground for the belief that the war would be more successfully prosecuted by means of conscription. The Secretary for War was much gratified with the response which had been made to the appeal to the country. Mr. Wing subsequently moved that during the continuance of the war no alcoholic liquors should be sold in the refreshment rooms or at the bars attached to the House of Commons. He urged this restriction as an example to the general public, and as an incentive to follow the lead of the King. The motion was seconded by Mr. Butcher, but Mr. Bonar Law found himself unable to support it; he thought it would be absurd to suppress the sale of liquor in the House when members had only to go down to their clubs or houses to get all they wanted. Such a measure appeared to him to be hardly sincere. After some further discussion a motion for the adjournment was put and carried.

On April 22 the House went into Committee of Supply on the Army Estimates: and on the vote for 1000*l.* for the War Office, Mr. Tennant commented on the success with which an army had been maintained in the field larger than had ever appeared on the most speculative and fanciful horizons. The health of the troops had been very remarkable, and all epidemic diseases,

such as measles or typhoid, had been brought under control and localised. Wounded men frequently reached their hospital in London within twenty-four hours of the wounds being received. He was instructed by Lord Kitchener to inform the House that the results of recruiting during the last few months had been most satisfactory; and that the numbers were being maintained with surprising regularity. Entomologists of world-wide reputation had been sent out to the front in order to combat the evil of a plague of flies and insects which was to be apprehended when the hot weather arrived.

Mr. Long said that the credit for the wonderful work which had been done by the War Office during the war was chiefly due to Lord Kitchener. He sharply criticised the action of the censors in withholding news, which he said had puzzled him more than anything else in his life. Referring to the promotion of officers, Mr. Long adhered to his former statement that the action of the War Office was breaking the hearts of officers at the front. Territorial officers, junior to regular officers, and with less training and experience, were given higher rank; and it could not be wondered at that allegations of favouritism were made.

Mr. Asquith welcomed the criticisms brought forward by Mr. Long. He pointed out the obvious difficulties with which the War Office was confronted, saying that it was impossible to get rid of the element of chance or luck. Even-handed justice ought to be the rule in so far as it was possible to apply it; and the special cases of hardship which Mr. Long had mentioned were doubtless due to inadvertence, perhaps due to overwork in the department concerned. Mr. Asquith again expressed his readiness to hear criticism; which he regarded as being of great service to the Government: and he undertook that everything possible should be done to remedy the kind of grievances which had been mentioned.

About the middle of April the Government issued, as a White Book, correspondence which had passed between Sir Edward Grey and the United States Ambassador in London, relating to the treatment of prisoners of war and interned civilians in the United Kingdom and Germany. The reports of the American agents furnished a striking contrast; and showed clearly the hardships to which British prisoners in Germany had been subjected. Major Vandeleur in particular, who was himself an escaped prisoner, described the abuse which had been showered upon prisoners as they travelled from the front into Germany. He related how he had been dragged out of the railway wagon and kicked by a common soldier. For three days and three nights the prisoners were cooped up in overcrowded and unventilated wagons; and reports by Americans declared that on their arrival at Crefeld they were pale from want of food and vermin-ridden. On April 27 discussions took place in both Houses of

Parliament with regard to this subject. In the House of Lords, Lord Kitchener said that Germany had stooped to acts which would stain indelibly her military history, and which would vie with the barbarous savagery of the dervishes of the Sudan. Lord Lansdowne spoke in a similar spirit, but deprecated any attempt at reprisals as being opposed to the principle of humanity and the spirit of the British people.

In the House of Commons Sir F. Banbury moved that the Government should take all steps in their power to ensure better treatment in future for prisoners in Germany. Mr. Churchill defended the policy of the Government in according special treatment to German submarine prisoners in England, and pointed out that the conditions under which they were interned was in every respect humane. The reply of the Government to Sir F. Banbury's motion was, however, given by Mr. Primrose. He said it was clear that in Germany British officers and men had been discriminated against; and French prisoners were receiving more favourable treatment; the Government protested through the United States Ambassador at Berlin in every case of ill-treatment brought to their notice: and money was supplied to the United States Embassy for distribution among the civilian prisoners. Later in the debate Mr. Asquith said that when we came to an end of the war we should not forget this horrible record of calculated cruelty and crime, and we should hold it to be our duty to exact such reparation against those who are proved to have been the guilty agents and actors in the matter as it may be possible for us to do. An instance of German methods of treating their prisoners was afforded by the sentence of death which was passed on April 27 on Private William Lonsdale for alleged insubordination in one of the camps; the sentence was, however, subsequently commuted to a long period of imprisonment.

After long consideration the Government at length brought forward their proposals with regard to the drink question. These proposals were introduced by Mr. Lloyd George in the House of Commons on April 29. He denied that undue importance had been attached to the part played by drink in restricting the output of munitions of war; the road had to be cleared to enable them to increase the output which meant life for the Empire. The consideration of the question was not forced upon them by teetotallers, but by officials responsible for the output of war material and transport; reports from the Clyde, the Tyne and Barrow showed that men were doing less work than would be regarded as ordinary under peace conditions; and the chief cause of this slackness was said to be the facilities which existed for men to obtain beer and spirits, combined with high rates of wages and abundance of employment. Since the charge of slackness was first made there had been no perceptible improvement. In the armament works the loss was not so great, but it was sufficiently

serious, and it was considered that some drastic restrictions of drinking facilities were absolutely essential if the largest possible output was to be obtained. The opinions of officials, managers and employers to this effect were supported by officials who had made an independent investigation after the facts were challenged. Mr. Lloyd George told the House that whatever was proposed to remedy the evil involved a measure of surrender and abnegation by those who were not to blame; wars were waged now, not by armies but by nations, and nations like armies must be under discipline. What he proposed was an act of discipline during the war for the purpose of making war efficiently. He then proceeded to outline the proposals of the Government which were as follows:—

The duty on spirits to be doubled.

A graded surtax to be placed on beers containing over 7 per cent. of proof spirit, ranging from 12s. to 36s. per bulk barrel, according to the specific gravity.

The duty on wines to be quadrupled and the tax on sparkling wines raised to 15s. per gallon.

The maximum dilution of spirits permitted by law to be increased from 25 to 35 under proof.

The Government to take powers limited to the period of the war, to close public-houses or to control them in certain areas where their presence was considered to be prejudicial to the output of munitions of war, the work of transport or the discipline of troops. The power would include the right to use licensed or other premises in the area for the purposes of supplying reasonable refreshment and to make purchases from any brewery not withholding that a house had previously been tied.

Fair compensation to be given in respect of existing interests, the principles of compensation to be the same as those already in force under the present Defence of the Realm Act, and a Commission to be appointed to ascertain the amount to be paid.

The proposals of the Government were coldly received. Mr. Bonar Law said that he had not clearly understood what the proposals were to be, and he thought it better not to express any opinion until he had seen the Bill and the reports concerning lost time which Mr. Lloyd George had promised to circulate.

The Irish members, on the other hand, condemned the proposals on the spot. Mr. Redmond said that no case had been made out against Ireland, and the proposals of the Government would destroy root and branch the great Irish industry. Mr. William O'Brien lamented the striking of an unjust and possibly fatal blow at this industry and Mr. T. M. Healy also offered vigorous criticism. When resolutions to sanction the new duties on spirits and beers were moved in Committee of Ways and Means, the Independent Nationalists took the House to a division for the first time since the outbreak of the war. They received no support, how-

ever, in their opposition and only mustered five in the lobby. Mr. Chamberlain said that while the Opposition assented to the passing of the resolutions for the purpose of protecting the revenue they must not be considered as committed to the Government proposals.

It soon became clear that these proposals were exceedingly unpopular in the country; indeed it was almost impossible to find any one who had a good word to say for them. The Irish Nationalist party held a meeting at which they decided to oppose the new taxes by every constitutional means. This resolution was communicated to Mr. Lloyd George, and probably influenced him in deciding to meet deputations from "the trade" with a view to framing proposals which would command general assent. Public opinion was so pronounced on the subject that within a week the suggestions for liquor taxation were dead.

On May 4 Mr. Lloyd George introduced his second War Budget. He foreshadowed a possible expenditure during the financial year of 1,132,654,000*l.*, but announced no further new taxation. For the moment he asked the House simply to pass a resolution renewing the income tax at the scale imposed last November, and gave a warning that if the war was prolonged it would be the duty of the House of Commons to consider what further contributions the community could make to conduct it, since success was vital to the very existence of the Empire.

The members, who were crowded on the floor of the House, listened to the Chancellor of the Exchequer with his estimate of over a thousand millions with less apparent concern than they had shown a year before over a Budget which provided for only a fifth of that amount. Mr. Lloyd George mentioned the difficulties which had to be faced in financing the war; he set aside sub-solutions of the problem such as the use of a "paper bridge" which he called a dilution of currency, and the sale of existing securities, or the creation of new securities by borrowing abroad. The only straightforward and reliable course, he said, and the only one which would help the country through the war and prevent injury after the war was to depend very largely upon income. It was necessary to look primarily to the savings of the community. The ordinary savings in time of peace were about 300,000,000*l.* to 400,000,000*l.* per annum; but with earnings and incomes higher he believed that the savings in war time could be doubled. This increased saving he regarded as vital, in order that there should be funds to be invested in National loans. The estimate of 1,132,654,000*l.* as the expenditure for the year was based on the assumption that the war would last until next April. In this case the deficit to be met would be 862,322,000*l.* If the war ended in September, the expenditure would be 786,778,000*l.* The average daily cost of the war, Mr. Lloyd George said, was now 2,100,000*l.*, apart from loans to our Allies and Dominions, which in the event

of the struggle lasting another year would amount to 200,000,000*l.* The revenue budgetted for was 270,332,000*l.*, an increase of 43,638,000*l.* over the preceding year. The yield of Excise and Customs was expected to be 95,200,000*l.*; 28,000,000*l.* was looked for from estate duties, and 103,000,000*l.* from property and income tax, including the super-tax.

The Budget was the most stupendous in the financial history of the country, as may be seen from the following table :—

| | 1913-14. Full Year of Peace. | 1914-15. Eight Months of War. | 1915-16. Full Year of War. |
|------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| Revenue - - - - | 198,243,000 | 226,694,000 | 270,332,000 |
| Expenditure - - - | 197,493,000 | 560,474,000 | 1,132,654,000 |
| Surplus or deficit - - | 750,000 (surplus) | 333,780,000 (deficit) | 862,322,000 (deficit) |

The following table exhibits the estimated changes in yield of taxation :—

| | 1915-16. | Increase or Decrease Compared with 1914-15. |
|--------------------------------|--------------|---|
| | £ | £ |
| Customs - - - - - | 37,450,000 | - 1,212,000 |
| Excise - - - - - | 54,650,000 | + 12,337,000 |
| Estate, etc., Duties - - - - - | 28,000,000 | - 382,000 |
| Stamps - - - - - | 6,500,000 | - 1,077,000 |
| Land Tax - - - - - | 660,000 | + 30,000 |
| House Duty - - - - - | 1,990,000 | + 60,000 |
| Income Tax - - - - - | 103,000,000 | + 33,601,000 |
| Land Value Duties - - - - - | 350,000 | - 62,000 |
| Total Receipts - - - - - | £232,600,000 | + £43,295,000 |

The final balance sheet, 1915-16, as proposed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer was as follows :—

| Estimated Revenue. | | |
|--|-------------|--------------|
| | £ | |
| Receipts from taxes - - - - - | 232,600,000 | |
| Add proposed increase of Wine Duties - - - - - | 1,500,000 | |
| Add proposed increase of Beer Duty - - - - - | 1,600,000 | |
| Total from Taxes - - - - - | | £235,700,000 |
| Postal Service - - - - - | 20,600,000 | |
| Telegraph Service - - - - - | 3,100,000 | |
| Telephone Service - - - - - | 6,700,000 | |
| Crown Lands - - - - - | 530,000 | |
| Receipts from Suez Canal Shares and Sundry Loans - - - - - | 2,002,000 | |
| Miscellaneous - - - - - | 1,700,000 | |
| Total from Non-tax Revenue - - - - - | | 34,632,000 |
| Total Revenue - - - - - | | £270,332,000 |

| Estimated Expenditure. | | |
|---|--------------|----------------|
| <i>I. Consolidated Fund Services.</i> | | |
| National Debt Services ; inside the Fixed Debt Charge - | £ 24,500,000 | |
| Deduct—Proposed suspension of the new Sinking Fund - | 3,780,000 | |
| | | £20,720,000 |
| Outside the Fixed Debt Charge - - - - - | 15,750,000 | |
| Add—Interest and Expenses of Additional War Debt - | 14,976,000 | |
| | | 30,726,000 |
| Road Improvement Fund - - - - - | | 1,431,000 |
| Payments to Local Taxation Accounts, etc. - - - | | 9,406,000 |
| Other Consolidated Fund Services - - - - - | | 1,697,000 |
| Total Consolidated Fund Services - - - - - | | £63,980,000 |
| <i>II. Supply Services.</i> | | |
| Army (Token Vote) - - - - - | | 15,000 |
| Navy (Token Vote) - - - - - | | 17,000 |
| <i>Civil Services :—</i> | | |
| Old Age Pensions - - - - - | 13,089,000 | |
| Labour Exchanges, Insurance, etc. - - - - - | 8,683,000 | |
| Other Civil Services (including Public Education) - - | 37,246,000 | |
| | | 59,018,000 |
| Customs and Excise, and Inland Revenue Departments - | 4,788,000 | |
| Post Office Services - - - - - | 26,836,000 | |
| Total Supply Services - - - - - | | 31,624,000 |
| Vote of Credit already Passed - - - - - | 250,000,000 | |
| Add—Further Votes of Credit - - - - - | 728,000,000 | |
| | | 978,000,000 |
| Total Expenditure - - - - - | | £1,132,654,000 |

Such criticism as then took place in the House referred less to the Budget than to the proposals of the Government for dealing with the drink question as announced by the Chancellor of the Exchequer the preceding week. Mr. Austen Chamberlain said that he found no fault with the proposal to restrict if necessary the supply of drink in certain areas, but in placing penal and crushing taxes on spirits, beer and wines, he thought they were blistering the whole of the body because of an aching tooth. There was no proportion between the evil described and the remedy propounded ; so far as the brewing trade was concerned the proposals meant not taxation but annihilation, and the argument used to justify the crippling tax on wines came dangerously close to cant. He said that with every desire to assist the Government he did not see how it was possible for the Opposition to support these taxes or to do anything but actively oppose them, if the Chancellor of the Exchequer continued to press them on the House.

Mr. Lloyd George hereupon intervened to say that he had arranged to see deputations on the subject the following day, and it would not be helpful if the House were at that moment to enter upon a prolonged argument. The last thing which the Government wished to do was to embark upon an embittered controversy ; and controversy on a large scale he certainly would not face, because it would injure the country. He made a plea, however, that the

Government should be helped to do something substantial to curb a great evil. He would like the House to give them powers at once in the munition areas, as without the Bill he could not set up the necessary committee for the purpose of making investigations.

Mr. Bonar Law said he was sure there was a drink evil, but the remedy must not be out of proportion to the evil. He was absolutely convinced that if these taxes were proceeded with on anything like the present basis there would be a bitter agitation throughout the country. He signified his willingness that the Government should get the powers they required for controlling the supply of drink in certain areas, but asked for an agreement upon the question of the taxes before this assent was given. The easy way for Mr. Lloyd George to follow in dealing with this problem, he added, was to carry with him the co-operation of the trade.

The second reading of the Defence of the Realm (Amendment) (No. 3) Bill, was taken two days later; when the House declined to proceed with the Bill until the Government had made up their minds about their liquor taxation proposals. The discussions lasted less than an hour. At the outset the Chancellor of the Exchequer expressed his confidence that the negotiations on the taxation proposals would lead to an arrangement satisfactory to all. If that should be achieved next day, as he hoped, the country would at once be informed. Meanwhile, as the Bill made no mention whatever of taxes, he appealed to the House to give it a second reading.

Mr. Bonar Law, while offering no objection to this, stipulated that before the House parted finally with the Bill they should be told how the other proposals stood. Mr. John Redmond was not prepared to go even so far. He would cordially support the Bill if it stood alone; but as a part of the larger scheme he would have none of it. He therefore moved the adjournment of the debate.

The Prime Minister, however, was loath to postpone a Bill so urgently needed in the interests of the country and the Empire. The modified taxation proposals, which would shortly be submitted, afforded, he thought, no ground for delaying the progress of the Bill. If the House insisted on an adjournment it would be necessary to hold a sitting the following Monday to recover the lost time. This the House agreed to do, and after some speeches from Nationalist members who demanded the total abandonment, not the modification, of the tax proposals, the debate was adjourned.

Next day the Chancellor of the Exchequer reached an agreement with the representatives of the interests involved in the Government's proposals for increased liquor duties. As a result of this agreement the proposed whisky duties as well as those on

beer and wine were entirely withdrawn. It was agreed, however, that the sale of spirits under three years of age should be totally prohibited; this was to be accomplished by compulsorily bonding all spirits under three years of age. Upon the announcement of this agreement, the whole of the public discussion and propaganda about drink in the country collapsed; and no more was heard of the subject.

The Defence of the Realm (No. 3) Bill was read a third time on May 12; it provided that regulations might be made by Order in Council for the control of the sale and supply of intoxicating liquor in any munitions, transport, or camp area.

Towards the end of April some interest was excited by an article in *The Times*, showing how, just before the beginning of the war, Herr Ballin, a friend of the German Emperor and head of the Hamburg-Amerika Steamship Company, had attempted to influence British public opinion against Russia. On August 2 a communication from Herr Ballin was received by *The Times*, through Mr. John Walter, endeavouring to throw upon Russia the entire blame for the war. This communication was not published by *The Times*; and it was shown that subsequently Herr Ballin had endeavoured to repudiate its authenticity. The incident was discussed in the House of Lords on May 5, when Lord Hylton raised the matter in order, as he said, to perpetuate the evidence of an audacious attempt by a friend of the German Emperor to revoke a deliberate statement. He drew attention to Herr Ballin's eminence in Germany as a "power behind the throne," and then recounted the story of the telegram which was falsely repudiated when it was no longer good policy to blame Russia for the war. The defence of Herr Ballin was undertaken by Lord Haldane, who said that Herr Ballin was a man of distinction in his own country; and of the two possible explanations of his conduct Lord Haldane preferred "treachery of recollection" rather than "making a great reflection on his sincerity." He said that he had had the pleasure of knowing him slightly in the past, and had always thought him a man of the most interesting personality. Although this incident excited considerable comment for a few days, it was soon afterwards forgotten.

The sinking of the *Lusitania*, on May 7 (see History of the War), produced violent anti-German demonstrations in London and the provinces. The London Royal Exchange and several provincial exchanges decided to exclude persons of German birth; and attacks on shops occupied by Germans occurred in many parts of the country. In Liverpool the authorities began the work of internment of Germans, and on May 11 a procession of business men marched from the City to the House of Commons to press Ministers to take further action against Germans in England. The deputation succeeded in seeing the Attorney-General, and next day Mr. Asquith stated in the House of Commons that the

Cabinet were considering the question of segregating or interning enemy aliens on a more extensive scale. Some such measure appeared indeed to be urgently called for; for the riots which occurred in various parts of the country involved Germans in considerable danger. On May 13 Mr. Asquith announced the new plan of the Government on this matter. The scheme which he disclosed to the House of Commons involved the internment or deportation of all enemy aliens, unless grounds were shown for exceptional treatment. Naturalised persons of enemy origin would be left at liberty unless grounds were shown for interning them. Mr. Asquith said that 19,000 enemy aliens had already been interned, and that in addition there were registered in this country 24,000 men and 16,000 women of German, Austro-Hungarian or Turkish origin, who had not been naturalised. For their own safety and that of the community, all males of military age (seventeen to fifty-five) would be segregated and interned; males over the military age, and in suitable cases women and children would be repatriated.

Mr. Asquith went on to say that there would be cases which called for exceptional treatment, and accordingly an advisory body of a judicial character was to be set up to consider claims for exemption from the general rule. This committee would report to the Home Secretary, by whom exemptions would be granted or refused; those not so exempted would be interned as soon as the Naval and Military authorities had provided the necessary accommodation. In the case of the 8,000 naturalised persons of enemy origin the *prima facie* presumption was that they were harmless; but where necessity or danger was proved to the satisfaction of the advisory body, the power of internment would be used.

Mr. Bonar Law explained that he had already given his assent to the new proposals. So serious was his view of the deplorable but not surprising outbreaks of public violence against Germans, that he had taken the unusual course of discussing the matter with the Prime Minister on the previous day. After hearing the proposals of the Government, he continued, he told the Prime Minister that he could think of no better plan; this was not a war between armies, but a war between nations, and hitherto the feeling of the nation had been ahead of the feeling of the Government. No one wished to inflict unnecessary hardship on innocent people, but "at a time like this there can be no neutrals in Great Britain: every one who is not for us is against us." Those naturalised aliens who had not specifically divested themselves of their alien nationality were a particular danger, and the higher the position they held the greater their power to injure.

In the discussion which followed several speakers urged that more drastic steps should be taken in the case of naturalised Germans. The only plea for a more moderate scheme came from Mr. Holt, who attached much importance to the economic value

of alien labour. With this exception all the speakers welcomed the new policy. Mr. Asquith, replying at the close of the debate, refused to treat all naturalised aliens as spies and enemies; most of them he assumed were loyal British subjects, and the rest would be dealt with. Even the majority of the non-naturalised were decent, honest people: and to initiate a vendetta against them would not only be disgraceful but impolitic. Anything more discreditable than the recent outbursts of vindictiveness it would be impossible to conceive.

A new stimulus was given to that vindictiveness, however, by the publication of the report of the committee which had been appointed the previous December to investigate the charges as to outrages alleged to have been committed by German troops. This committee, it will be remembered, consisted of Lord Bryce, Chairman; Sir Frederick Pollock, Bart., K.C.; Sir Edward Clarke, K.C.; Sir Kenelm Digby, K.C., G.C.B.; Sir Alfred Hopkinson, K.C.; Mr. H. A. L. Fisher, and Mr. Harold Cox. Their report was issued during the second week in May; and their findings, which were unanimous, bore witness to a long course of cruelty and atrocities perpetrated by the German Army. The conclusion reached by the Committee was stated as follows:—

“It is proved (1) that there were in many parts of Belgium deliberate and systematically organised massacres of the civil population, accompanied by many isolated murders and other outrages. (2) That in the conduct of the war generally innocent civilians, both men and women, were murdered in large numbers; women violated and children murdered. (3) That looting, house burning and the wanton destruction of property were ordered and countenanced by the officers of the German Army; that elaborate provision had been made for systematic incendiarism at the very outbreak of the war, and that the burnings and destruction were frequent where no military necessity could be alleged, being indeed part of the system of general terrorisation. (4) That the rules and usages of war were frequently broken, particularly by the using of civilians, including women and children, as a shield for advancing forces exposed to fire, to a less degree by killing the wounded and prisoners and in the frequent abuse of the Red Cross and white flag.”

The report went on to state that “murder, lust and pillage prevailed over many parts of Belgium on a scale unparalleled in any war between civilised nations during the last three centuries”; and the hope was expressed “that these disclosures will not have been made in vain if they touch and rouse the conscience of mankind.”

On May 18 Lord Kitchener in the House of Lords made one of his periodical surveys of the whole field of war. Interest centred specially on what he would say with regard to the supply of ammunition. Dealing with this subject Lord Kitchener stated

that there had been considerable delay in producing the quantity required, owing to the unprecedented and almost unlimited demands made upon the manufacturers; but thanks to strenuous efforts by all concerned the output had now considerably improved. High explosive shells for field-guns were a new departure in munitions of war, and their introduction caused delay and difficulty to manufacturers. "I am confident," Lord Kitchener added, "that in the very near future we shall be in a satisfactory position with regard to the supply of these shells." He denounced the use of poisonous gases by the enemy as a breach of the recognised rules of war, but stated that in self-defence the Allies would employ the same weapon against those who invented it. It was, he said, a diabolical practice; but unless our men met the enemy "on his own ground" they would be under an enormous and unjustifiable disadvantage. The British and French Governments, therefore, felt that the Allied troops "must be adequately protected by the employment of similar methods."

The chief points in the review of recent operations in the various theatres of war were as follows: The French offensive south of La Bassée, already marked by complete success, was proceeding with every indication of further wholly satisfactory results. The British offensive towards the Aubers Ridge, taken in pursuance of concerted plans, would it was hoped achieve important results. After desperate resistance to the Austro-German advance the Russians were now holding a strong line from the Eastern Carpathians to the Vistula, with Przemyśl as the pivot. In Gallipoli the Turks were being gradually forced to retire from strong positions in spite of their constant reinforcements. In South-West Africa the occupation of Windhuk marked the beginning of the last phase of the campaign. Mesopotamia was gradually being cleared of all hostile forces.

In the course of his survey Lord Kitchener paid a high tribute to the Canadians for their stand at Ypres against the enemy's poisonous fumes—"an ordeal to try the qualities of the finest army in the world." Their losses and those of the whole Army had been heavy, but "the spirit and *moral* of our troops have never been higher than at the present moment." The landing in Gallipoli was "a masterpiece of organisation, ingenuity and courage," while the achievements of General Botha "confirmed the admiration felt for him as a commander and leader of men." Lord Kitchener expressed his appreciation of the devotion to duty and cheerfulness under hardship shown by the new armies; and in conclusion made an appeal to the country for 300,000 more recruits.

The attention of the country was now suddenly drawn towards very important impending changes in the Government. On May 12 Mr. Asquith had stated in the House of Commons that "the admission into the ranks of Ministers of leading members of the

various political parties in the House " was not in contemplation. Precisely one week later he made the formal announcement in the House of Commons that "steps are in contemplation which will involve the reconstruction of the Government on a broader personal and political basis." He added that nothing had yet been definitely arranged, and made clear the three following essential points :—

"(1) Any change that takes place will not affect the offices of the Head of the Government or the Foreign Secretary, which will continue to be held as they are now.

"(2) There is absolutely no change of any kind in contemplation in the policy of the country with regard to the continued prosecution of the war with all possible energy and by means of every available resource.

"(3) Any reconstruction that may be made will be for the purpose of the war alone, and is not to be taken in any quarter, or for any reason to indicate anything in the nature of surrender or compromise on the part of any person or any body of persons of their several political purposes and ideals."

The sudden decision to broaden the basis of Government was mainly due to a quarrel which had broken out at the Admiralty between Mr. Churchill and Lord Fisher. It had become clear that the protracted co-operation of these two officials had become impossible, and that the resignation of Lord Fisher could no longer be averted. A further cause of the fall of the Liberal Ministry was the growing conviction that the Government had failed with its existing machinery to supply the Army with an adequate quantity of munitions. Mr. Bonar Law accepted the principle of Coalition Administration, and the announcement was accordingly made by Mr. Asquith in the House of Commons on May 19, just before it adjourned for the Whitsuntide recess. When the House met again on June 3 they found the new Administration fully established. Considerable public curiosity was aroused as to what changes were likely to be made.

The announcement of the new Cabinet was made next week ; it contained twenty-two members, two more than the old, and was the largest of modern times. It consisted of twelve Liberals, eight Unionists, one Labour member, and Lord Kitchener. Twelve members of the old Cabinet remained ; and the eight who retired were Lord Haldane, Lord Beauchamp, Mr. Hobhouse, Mr. Herbert Samuel, Mr. Pease, Mr. Montagu, Lord Lucas, and Lord Emmott. The only newcomer on the Liberal side was Sir Stanley Buckmaster, who became Lord Chancellor, after that office had been refused by Sir J. Simon. Mr. McKenna was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer, while Mr. Lloyd George filled the specially created post of Minister of Munitions. Mr. Churchill left the Admiralty and was succeeded by Mr. Balfour. A place in the Cabinet was offered to Mr. John Redmond, but he did not see his way to

accept it. The new Ministry of Munitions was designed for the organisation of the supply of the munitions of war. Mr. Henderson, who became President of the Board of Education, was to assist the Government in relation to Labour questions especially arising out of the war, while Mr. Samuel, although excluded from the Cabinet, continued to deal with questions relating to Belgian refugees. On his retirement from the Ministry the King conferred the Order of Merit upon Lord Haldane. The constitution of the Cabinet was as follows :—

Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury—Mr. Asquith.

Minister without Portfolio—Lord Lansdowne.

Lord Chancellor—Sir Stanley Buckmaster.

Lord President of the Council—Lord Crewe.

Lord Privy Seal—Lord Curzon.

Chancellor of the Exchequer—Mr. McKenna.

Secretaries of State :—

Home Affairs—Sir John Simon.

Foreign Affairs—Sir Edward Grey.

Colonies—Mr. Bonar Law.

India—Mr. Chamberlain.

War—Lord Kitchener.

Minister of Munitions—Mr. Lloyd George.

First Lord of the Admiralty—Mr. Balfour.

President of the Board of Trade—Mr. Runciman.

President of the Local Government Board—Mr. Long.

Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster—Mr. Churchill.

Chief Secretary for Ireland—Mr. Birrell.

Secretary for Scotland—Mr. McKinnon Wood.

President of the Board of Agriculture—Lord Selborne.

First Commissioner of Works—Mr. Harcourt.

President of the Board of Education—Mr. Henderson.

Attorney-General—Sir Edward Carson.

The following appointments outside the Cabinets were made :—

Postmaster-General—Sir Herbert Samuel.

Solicitor-General—Mr. F. E. Smith.

Financial Secretary to the Treasury—Mr. Montagu.

Parliamentary Under-Secretaries :—

Home Affairs—Mr. Brace.

Foreign Affairs—Lord Robert Cecil.

Colonies—Mr. Steel Maitland.

India—Lord Islington.

War—Mr. Tennant.

Financial Secretaries :—

To the Admiralty—Mr. Macnamara.

To the War Office—Mr. H. W. Forster.

Parliamentary Secretaries :—

Board of Trade—Captain Pretymann.

Local Government Board—Mr. Hayes Fisher.

Board of Agriculture—Mr. Acland.

Board of Education—Mr. Herbert Lewis.

Munitions—Dr. Addison.

Assistant Postmaster-General—Mr. Pike Pease.

Vice-President of the Department of Agriculture for Ireland—Mr. T. W. Russell.

Joint Parliamentary Secretaries to the Treasury—{ Mr. Gulland.
Lord Edmund Talbot.

Lords Commissioner of the Treasury—{ Mr. G. H. Roberts.
Mr. Howard.
Mr. Bridgeman.
Mr. Walter Rea (unpaid).

Treasurer of the Household—Mr. James Hope.

Vice-Chamberlain of the Household—Mr. Beck.

Comptroller of the Household and Chairman National Health Insurance Joint Committee—Mr. Charles Roberts.

Another important appointment announced at the same time was that of Admiral Sir Henry Jackson, K.C.V.O., F.R.S., who succeeded Lord Fisher as First Sea Lord of the Admiralty. In view of the increased size of the Cabinet, it was understood that Ministers had decided to pool their salaries and divide the total amount equally among themselves, but no public statement was made with regard to this purely private arrangement.

The only remaining event of political interest which occurred before Whitsuntide was a speech by Mr. Asquith at a meeting at the Guildhall, presided over by the Lord Mayor, to do homage to the self-governing Dominions, the Colonies and the Indian Empire. Mr. Asquith moved and Mr. Bonar Law seconded a resolution expressing gratitude for the unparalleled services rendered by these countries in the struggle to maintain the ideal of liberty and justice. Both speakers paid high tribute to the services rendered by the Dominions and Dependencies of the Crown.

On May 22 there occurred the worst disaster in the history of British railways, on the Caledonian line, a mile north of Gretna Green. Three trains were involved: a troop train ran into a local passenger train, and the Scottish express from Euston then crashed into the wreckage of both; fire broke out and added to the heavy death roll. A hundred and fifty-seven persons were killed and about 200 injured. The troop train was carrying southward 500 officers and men, most of them belonging to the 7th Royal Scots; and it was among them that most of the casualties occurred. The cause of the accident was at once ascertained to be the fault of the signalman, who admitted that he had forgotten the presence of the local train. The King sent a telegram, expressing his deep sorrow, to the general manager of the Caledonian Railway Company.

CHAPTER III.

THE COALITION GOVERNMENT.

BOTH Houses of Parliament re-assembled on June 3, and were met by the Coalition Government for the first time. The re-grouping of persons and parties conferred an entirely novel appearance on the House of Commons. The new Unionist members of the Cabinet were not in attendance, but awaited the passage of an emergency Bill to relieve them of the obligation of seeking re-election on their new appointments. There were, however, representatives of the Unionist and Labour parties on the Treasury Bench. Some embarrassment was felt at first owing to the absence of a regular Opposition; Mr. Chaplin, from the front Opposition Bench, asked the Government the usual question about the course of business, which previously fell to the leader of the Opposition. The re-distribution of seats, however, was mainly

limited to the front benches; the Unionists and Nationalists both retained their usual benches, while only a few Liberals and Labour men crossed the House to the Speaker's left. These included several Socialists and extreme Radicals, such as Mr. Snowden, Mr. Anderson, Mr. Richardson, Sir William Byles, Mr. Aneurin Williams, and a few members of the Welsh party. The general feeling of novelty was enhanced by the presence of the new Serjeant-at-Arms in the person of Sir Colin Keppel.

The most noteworthy incident of the sitting was a statement by Mr. Pease on his resignation from the Government. He said that on the previous Monday week he saw a circular issued by the Prime Minister asking the members of the Cabinet to place their resignations in his hands; it was intimated in this circular that Mr. Asquith thought it necessary in the national interest to introduce members of other political parties into the Cabinet. He had no wish to criticise the Coalition Government or its *personnel*, but held that attention should be entirely devoted to helping the soldiers in the trenches and the sailors on the sea. He recognised the necessity for making sacrifices, and he suspected that many other members of the House were likewise making sacrifices in giving their support to a Coalition Ministry.

Sir John Simon then rose to introduce a temporary emergency Bill for the purpose of dispensing with the necessity of re-electing members of the House on their acceptance of office, as required by a statute passed in the reign of Queen Anne. The suspension of this statute was to take effect from May 1 and continue in operation until the dissolution of Parliament after the termination of the war. An attack was then made on Mr. Asquith by Mr. Ginnell, who accused the Prime Minister of having surrendered to the cry of Unionist newspapers without consulting his own party. The Bill at once passed through its first, second and third readings, after the insertion of one or two small amendments in Committee. Sir John Simon then introduced a Bill for the creation of a Ministry of Munitions.

On the same day Mr. Lloyd George was busy at Manchester in his new capacity as Minister of Munitions. Addressing a meeting of Engineers, he said that his errand was the most urgent ever told to a Manchester audience. "I have come here," he said, "to tell you the truth." Referring to the recent capture of Przemyśl by the Germans, he admitted that this was a severe set-back to our Russian Allies, and affirmed that it was entirely due to superior equipment and to an overwhelming superiority in guns and munitions. The Russians had fought with dauntless courage, but in a single hour 200,000 shells had been poured upon them. If our troops had been able to rain as many shells upon the Germans, they would have been turned out of France; Germany would have been invaded, and the end of war would have been at hand. He declared that Germany owed this victory to the organ-

isation of her workshops, and that it was in the workshops of this country that success must be sought. He said that he had not come down to use his powers under the Defence of the Realm Act; at the same time he denied that military conscription was "anti-democratic," and said that it might become necessary to resort to it, especially in the industrial field. Mr. Lloyd George declared that his short experience as Minister of Munitions had shown him that the country had not yet brought one half of its industrial strength to bear on the problem of winning the war.

On the following day the new Minister of Munitions made another speech at Liverpool in the course of a discussion with employers, Labour representatives and others, as to how best the output of munitions for war could be augmented. He insisted upon the immensity of the issues at stake; upon the fatal consequences to all—particularly to the working classes—of a victory won by the German aristocratic and military caste; upon the way in which the Germans subordinated everything to the one great national purpose, and the strength this concentration gave them; and upon the imperious and immediate necessity that we should "get to work as one man," unless the cause of English freedom was to fail. He declared that certain trade union regulations must be modified; it was imperative that regulations which hampered the output of war material should be suspended during the continuance of the war, and referred particularly to the restraints on the use of unskilled labour and the employment of women; the trade union rules on these points had been suspended in France, and he appealed to the patriotism of English working-men to suspend them here; he condemned the deliberate "slowing down" of work by trade union orders, saying that it was "really intolerable" that in a period of war any man should be prevented from doing his utmost for the State. Mr. Lloyd George concluded by expressing his faith in the loyalty and patriotism of the people, and by inviting them to look upon the production of munitions as being their business no less than the business of the Government.

On June 5 Mr. Churchill addressed his constituents of Dundee for the first time since his departure from the Admiralty. He pointed out the complete readiness of the Fleet at the beginning of the war, and commented on the success which it had achieved in sweeping the seas of all hostile vessels. With regard to the attack upon the Dardanelles, he said that losses must be expected both by land and sea: the loss of ships, however, was of little account, for the vessels used for this purpose would otherwise have been lying idle in the southern ports; and many of them in any case would have been scrapped before the end of the year, in order that their crews might be transferred to the large number of new ships which would by that time have been added to the Navy. He adjured his audience to remember the magnitude of the prize

for which they were contending in the Dardanelles. The Army of Sir Ian Hamilton and the Fleet of Admiral de Robeck were separated by only a few miles from a victory such as had not yet been seen in the present war. At the beginning of the war no part of the national life was adapted to war on a great scale with the exception of the Navy; but the British Navy had been as ready as the German Army. Passing to the question of compulsory service, Mr. Churchill asserted the absolute supremacy of the State over all its subjects. If compulsion were necessary for achieving victory he would support it; but he did not believe that it would be found necessary, and he was sure that it was not necessary at that time. He concluded his speech by advocating a more complete organisation of the nation, and by emphasising the need for making a supreme effort.

On June 7 the House of Commons debated the second reading of the Ministry of Munitions Bill. Many of the Liberals, Nationalists and Socialists took the opportunity to denounce the application to labour of the compulsory measures suggested by Mr. Lloyd George in his speech at Manchester. Mr. Lloyd George himself did not attend the sitting, being apparently under the impression that he could not do so after his acceptance of his new post, until the existence of that post had been ratified by Parliament. The Speaker, however, expressed his opinion that Mr. Lloyd George was still a member of the House. In his absence the Bill was in charge of the new Home Secretary, Sir John Simon, who explained that the method followed by the Bill was to provide for Orders in Council which from time to time would define the scope of the work undertaken by the new department.

Most of the criticisms in the House were directed against the idea of conferring too absolute a power to effect changes by Orders in Council. Mr. Pringle said that the Bill gave the Minister of Munitions power to socialise labour. Mr. Snowden warned the Government that if anything was done to fasten forced labour on the working people of this country, it would receive his strenuous and incessant hostility. Mr. Dillon from the Nationalist Benches said there was no precedent for setting up a new Minister, who might have the power of imposing slavery in this country. He asserted that when the Bill was passed there might be a newspaper crusade to the effect that the Minister of Munitions should be made a slave-driver with absolute power to imprison by his warrant any man who he thought took too many glasses of whisky or refused to work overtime. As it was, he declared amid cheers that the House was being asked to give a blank cheque to a Minister to tyrannise over the working classes. Mr. Hobhouse, one of the lately resigned Ministers, appealed to the Government not to falsify the expectations of the country by introducing compulsory labour, and Mr. Crooks protested strongly against anything

in the nature of conscript labour. Sir John Simon thereupon stated that there was not the slightest intention of using the Bill for the introduction of forced or conscript labour. He added that if any special powers were needed in respect of labour, they would be asked for from the House. Mr. W. W. Rutherford regretted this limitation in the scope of the Bill, and it was then read a second time.

The committee stage was taken on the following day, the only amendment of importance being one proposed by the Attorney-General to remove any doubts as to the power of the new Minister to introduce compulsion. The insertion of the amendment secured that he would have no power to impose penalties upon the men for doing what they had hitherto been entitled to do. On the same day a discussion arose on the report of the financial resolution authorising the payment of a salary not exceeding 5,000*l.* to the Minister of Munitions. Sir Henry Dalziel referred to the rumours that Ministers had arranged behind the back of Parliament to pool their salaries, and asked whether the new Minister would actually receive 5,000*l.* Sir John Simon protested that any arrangement for sharing salaries was a private matter and did not concern Parliament. The Speaker being appealed to on the question, said that it was not one of order but of taste. Nevertheless Sir A. Markham spoke of "dividing the spoils," and suggested that only by such means could the Coalition Government maintain unanimity. Mr. Asquith thereupon rose to protest against this discussion. To debate the question as to how Ministers disposed of their salaries would put an end to the decencies of Parliamentary life. "So long as I am a Minister," he said, "I absolutely decline to admit the right of the House of Commons to inquire how we are going to spend the money." No other business of importance was transacted. Sir A. Markham suggested that Parliament should have an opportunity of discussing the conduct of the war behind closed doors, but Mr. Asquith declined to accede to it.

In the House of Lords the second reading of the Ministry of Munitions Bill was taken on June 9, when a debate of considerable importance took place. Lord Curzon, who moved the second reading, said it was common knowledge that grave anxiety had arisen during the last few months concerning the supply of munitions; upon that supply depended the ultimate issues of the war, not only for ourselves but for our Allies, "for whom we are making provision in respect of munitions on a scale of which this country is scarcely aware." Neither the magnitude and heroism of our armies nor the genius of their leaders would avail to drive the enemy to a final and ruinous defeat, unless they were made effective by a supply of munitions on a scale superior to that of the enemy. The task of providing that supply was beyond the resources of a terribly overworked War Office; it required the

undivided attention of a separate department, presided over by "a Minister of great resource, unbounded energy and driving power, and with exceptional influence over industrial organisations." Such a Minister would utilise the armies of labour which were only waiting to be used.

Lord Joicey thought the Government ought to take power to deal with men as well as munitions. He believed that some form of compulsion applied to shirkers would be approved by the bulk of the people. Lord Midleton regarded the Bill as the first step in the organisation of the nation for war. Lord St. Davids defended the organised working-classes against what he conceived to be unfair attacks. He saw nothing undemocratic in the compulsory requisition of labour, and he believed that it would come; but it must begin "at the top," and must not be confined to working-men. There were still some idlers among the upper classes. "Even among the members of your Lordships' House men can be found who have never done a day's work since the day they were born . . . and there are a few even among your sons who are hanging about the theatres and music-halls and will not face the dangers of war." One peer, an ex-servant of the Crown, had given a dance at which many such young men were present. Of course, Lord St. Davids added, they were unskilled; "but unskilled labour is needed to wait upon skilled labour in order that the greatest advantage may be obtained." He ended by declaring that victory had not yet been won or begun. Before it was, all would have to do their share.

The debate was continued by Lord Stanhope who was returning to the trenches on the following day. "I am stating," he said, "nothing that every German staff officer does not know, when I say that, speaking broadly, the French held their trenches by a few rifles and the support of their wonderful 75 mm. guns; while we hold our trenches, broadly, by rifle fire. The French system is expensive in ammunition; ours is expensive in life. Every day wasted in our factories means more lives lost at the Front, and every man in this country who does not occupy his time to the fullest possible advantage to the country is responsible for the loss of those lives." The man who refused to do his duty in the workshop should be sent to fight whether he liked it or not. Lord Stalbridge, who had also come from the Front, said that the men in Flanders and in France were not thinking, "When will the war end?" but "When will the people of England wake up and give us the guns we require?" He demanded the organisation of the nation "under military discipline"; the Government should give the workman some idea of the amount of ammunition required. The guns at the Front were capable of firing a million rounds in twenty-four hours, though of course it did not follow that that number was needed every day.

The debate was wound up by Lord Curzon, who said that he

detected echoes of bygone speeches of his own in what had been said about compulsion and the control of labour; but it would be unwise for him to enter at that moment into those "rather perilous" fields. He recalled Lord Kitchener's recent statement that shells were now being produced with greater rapidity, and he hinted that the new Minister of Munitions would make an early statement on the expectations of the department. He added that while the Bill gave no power to requisition labour, one of the Defence of the Realm Acts gave power to compel employers and employees in factories and workshops to obey the orders of the Admiralty and the War Office as to the use of the shops and plant. If the Government thought further powers were required they would ask for them in a separate Bill.

The second reading was then agreed to, and the measure was passed through its remaining stages and received the Royal assent the same afternoon.

Meanwhile in the House of Commons Mr. Balfour made his first appearance as First Lord of the Admiralty under happy circumstances. He was able to announce that a German submarine had been sunk, and that six officers and twenty-one men of the crew had been captured. He stated at the same time that the Government had reversed their policy of according different treatment to the prisoners captured from German submarines, and that in future such prisoners would be treated in precisely the same way as other prisoners of war. Mr. Balfour added that this did not indicate any change of opinion as to the unlawful, mean, cowardly and brutal character of their acts. A notification to this effect was sent to the German Government through the Embassy of the United States; and shortly afterwards the Germans restored the thirty-nine officers, upon whom they had been retaliating, to normal treatment. A few days later a further large detachment of wounded prisoners of war arrived from Germany in exchange for German prisoners.

The formation of the new Government was made the signal throughout the country for a vigorous campaign in favour of compulsory military service. There was no discussion of the question in the House of Commons; for the House was prepared to support the Government in whatever policy they should decide upon. The campaign was carried on in the newspapers and especially by *The Times* and the *Daily Mail*; while an equally vigorous campaign in favour of the continuance of voluntary service was conducted by the *Daily Chronicle*, *Daily News*, *The New Statesman*, *The Nation* and other periodicals. On June 16 speeches were made in favour of compulsory service by Lord Milner and Mr. Harold Cox at the annual meeting of the National Service League. Mr. Harold Cox was a recent convert from a belief in voluntary service; and as usual with new disciples carried his support of compulsion with great energy. It may be

observed, however, that for a long time past a sort of moral compulsion had been in existence. Almost everywhere great pressure was exercised upon eligible young men; advertisements at every corner called upon them to enlist, and large numbers were driven into the Army with nearly as much force as would have been the case under legal compulsion.

On June 10 the House went into Committee of Supply on the Civil Service Estimates; and the vote of 378,549*l.* for the Board of Trade furnished an opportunity for discussing the continued high prices of food and coal. Mr. Runciman, being urged to "do something bold and practical," referred to the agreement recently made with coal merchants for a limitation of their profits, and stated that he had almost reached an agreement with the Midland Colliery owners. There was no doubt that the existing price of coal at the pit-head was excessive; and if his demands were not fairly met by agreement he was sure that Parliament would not tolerate any exploitation. He hoped that the fall in wheat prices would not stop, and that the abundant harvest which was anticipated, coupled with the opening of the Dardanelles to which all looked forward, would accelerate the decline. He could not hold out any such hope in the case of meat prices; indeed he appealed again to the public to check their appetite for meat during the summer, so that supplies might be stored up. He stated that by commandeering all meat-carrying ships he had been able to dictate terms through the American Beef Trust for frozen meat both for the British and for the French Armies.

Dealing with the plea that cotton should be declared absolute contraband, Mr. Runciman said that many consignments of cotton which might have ultimately reached the enemy had been intercepted. The American interests had been satisfied and the cotton was being used in Lancashire. In future the prohibition would extend to cotton yarn; no yarn would be exported except to certain countries at the other end of the world, unless a licence for exportation had been granted by an expert committee of business men then being formed.

On June 11 Mr. Lloyd George made a new appeal to those engaged in the business of the workshop. He addressed a meeting at Cardiff, representative of employers and workpeople engaged in engineering and metal trades in South Wales. He admitted the urgent need for high explosive shells, saying that the problem at the Front was to beat down entrenchments, destroy machine-gun emplacements and tear up barbed wire, so that our troops might face their enemies. "That is a problem of high explosives and you can supply it for us." He pointed to the conversion of private workshops in France into arsenals as being the correct example to follow. The task could be approached, he said, in three ways. There was the plan adopted by Yorkshire of establishing two or three national shell factories in each area and

requisitioning machinery for them from other workshops in the district. There was also the method preferred in Lancashire of utilising existing workshops with the installation of additional machinery. Finally there was the plan of combining both these methods, central national arsenals being created either voluntarily or under the Defence of the Realm Act from other works, while private shops undertook, perhaps, the production of complete shells, or, perhaps, the production of incomplete shells for completion in the national arsenals.

This was the procedure which he suggested to the meeting. He had his eye on at least two works with some experience in shell manufacture which would probably be taken over by voluntary arrangement for use as national factories. But he made it clear that everybody must contribute to this undertaking; otherwise firms which took up the manufacture of shells might see their ordinary business pass to their trade rivals. For this reason he had undertaken that, under the powers conferred by the Ministry of Munitions Bill, there must be equality of sacrifice and of contribution. "I do not want to talk about compulsory powers," he went on; "it is an unpleasant topic; but there is no harm in your reminding any one who is likely to be a shirker of the existence of the Defence of the Realm Act. Still I would rather they did it voluntarily." He concluded with an exordium to "plant the flag on your workshops. Every lathe you have, recruit it. Convert your machinery into battalions, and we will drive the foe from the land which he has tortured and trampled on, and liberty will be once more enthroned in Europe."

The second reading of the Finance (No. 2) Bill was carried on June 14. The event was remarkable in that there was no discussion whatever, the Bill being read *sub silentio*. On the following day the Prime Minister moved a Supplementary Vote of Credit for 250,000,000*l.*; this being the fifth vote of credit which the House had been asked to agree to since the outbreak of the war. Mr. Asquith explained that the 362,000,000*l.* voted in the past financial year represented an expenditure of 1,500,000*l.* a day for 240 days in addition to the expenditure of the normal peace votes. The vote of 250,000,000*l.* for the first few months of the present financial year included the normal peace votes for the Army and Navy—about 80,000,000*l.* At the end of the previous week, after seventy-three days, 56,000,000*l.* of this vote was unspent. This showed an average daily expenditure of 2,660,000*l.* In view of probable expansion of Army and Navy expenditure and of financial assistance to our Allies on a scale certainly not reduced, the Prime Minister anticipated that the new vote would be spent during the succeeding months at the rate of 3,000,000*l.* a day.

From finance Mr. Asquith passed to the genesis and purpose of the Coalition Ministry. He referred to the task of reconstructing the *personnel* of the Government as having been extremely re-

pugnant; saying that no body of men could have acted more efficiently or loyally with him than his late colleagues. To part with them had been the severest and most painful experience of his public life. What then had brought about this upheaval and transformation? "What I came to think was needed, was such a broadening of the basis of the Government as would take away from it even the semblance of a one-sided or party character, and would demonstrate beyond the possibility of doubt not only to our own people but to the whole world that after nearly a year of war, with all its fluctuations and vicissitudes, the British people were more resolute than ever, with one heart and with one purpose, to obliterate all distinctions and unite every personal and political as well as every moral and material force in the prosecution of their cause." "What is the personality of this man or that? A supreme cause is at stake. We have each and all of us—I do not care who we are or what we are—to respond with whatever we have, with whatever we can give, with whatever we can sacrifice to the dominating and inexorable call."

Mr. Asquith emphasised two facts: First, the nationalisation of the Government involved no surrender of political convictions on either side. "I recede from nothing, I abandon nothing, I sacrifice nothing. What I have held in the past is what I shall work for and fight for in the future." Second, the changes in the Cabinet involved no change in the national policy. "That remains what it has been since the first week in August—to pursue this war at any cost to a victorious issue."

After the speech of the Prime Minister, a discussion arose on the need for public and private economy. Mr. Evelyn Cecil, who raised the subject, pointed out the grave consequences of conducting the war with needless extravagance. He feared that the National Debt which stood last August at 651,000,000*l.* might soon amount to 2,000,000,000*l.* unless greater vigilance over expenditure were exercised. Mr. McKenna admitted the vital need for economy, not only in public offices but in private households. "Now is the golden time for saving; every pound saved now will be of vital use when peace comes."

Various criticisms were brought against the late Government by Sir Henry Dalziel; especially the delay in internment of enemy aliens, the regulation of food supplies and the interception of the enemy's cotton supplies. He also invited the Prime Minister to throw some light on the operations in the Dardanelles, and to explain his statement at Newcastle that there had been no lack of shells for the Army. Mr. Asquith, in a comprehensive reply, agreed that the Government had doubtless made mistakes for which they must render account. But he was far from admitting that he made a mistake in his reassuring statement at Newcastle on the subject of shells. He went there, he said, with the sole object of bringing home to the workman the urgency of increasing the

supply of munitions; and the statement in question was made "on the highest authority accessible to me." With regard to the Dardanelles he said that the operation there was of the highest importance. "So far as I can form a judgment, it is an operation which we shall push through to a successful conclusion." At the end of the debate Sir A. Markham criticised the management of the War Office, and said that it could in no way give any sense of security to people who felt anxious about the conduct of the war. He thought that Lord Kitchener was in the wrong place, and ought to have been appointed Commander-in-Chief. The Vote of Credit was then agreed to.

The Report stage was taken next day and gave rise to a discussion on the supply of aeroplanes and bombs for the naval and military air-service. Mr. Joynson-Hicks demanded more aeroplanes, larger aeroplanes, more trained pilots and more high explosive bombs. From information brought home by the wounded, he said, it appeared that at many parts of our line the enemy's aeroplanes were more numerous than our own; our aeroplane service had also been short of high explosive bombs. We needed more machines, not only for work at the front but for attacks on German towns and for defence against Zeppelin raids on London. He was informed that it was possible to turn out in less than three months several aeroplanes of the latest Russian type, which would carry sixteen men and about 2,000 lb. of high explosive. The matter was as important as the supply of shells.

Mr. Tennant said it might be remarked not only of the air-service but of the artillery and infantry: "it is a pity we had not more." The air-service was now in a very good proportion to the rest of the Army. We had at present ten pilots for every one before the war, five men engaged in the service generally for every one before, and eleven schools capable of training simultaneously 200 pupils, where before we had one school capable of training twenty pupils. He could not say whether there had been cases of a deficiency of high explosive bombs; but he could say there had been no deficiency since February, and at the present moment there was an ample supply with an ample reserve. He added that larger aeroplanes similar to the Russian machines were in process of construction.

After various other speeches the Chancellor of the Exchequer stated that none of the money now voted would go to Powers other than Allies, and repeated his warning of the need for organised public economy and domestic thrift.

In Committee on the Finance (No. 2) Bill, Mr. Snowden and other members in all quarters of the House supported the proposal for a tax on war profits. Mr. Montagu pointed out that the simple plan which had generally found favour of levying income tax on the actual income of the year instead of on the average income of the previous three years would involve an immediate

sacrifice of 100,000,000*l.* on the part of the Treasury. He stated definitely, however, that he hoped the Government would be able at an early date to produce water-tight proposals for taxing substantially extra income made during the war. There might be delay for a month or two, and meanwhile he invited Mr. Snowden to assist the Government in the preparation of their scheme.

On June 17 the Home Office Vote served to provide opportunity for another discussion on the subject of aliens resident in this country. Sir Henry Dalziel suggested that the Home Office might examine the naturalisation papers of Germans masquerading as Swiss; or make it a penal offence to employ an enemy alien or order those Germans who had changed their names to resume their original names; or suggest to German justices of the peace that it was humiliating to Englishmen to be sentenced in broken English. Sir Edwin Cornwall protested vigorously against the obduracy of permanent officials in Government departments whom he called "tin gods in water-tight compartments." He demanded the removal of persons of German origin and association from responsible positions, and particularly the dismissal by two unnamed Ministers of their private secretaries.

Sir John Simon admitted the gravity and urgency of the question. At the very beginning of the war, the police laid their hands upon every person whom the Special Investigation Departments at the War Office and Scotland Yard had any reason to consider dangerous. Under the new policy other internments were being made as soon as accommodation could be provided. Large camps had been formed in the Isle of Man and were being enlarged to accommodate an additional thousand prisoners every week. After stating that 286 applications for exemption had been granted and 1,256 refused, the Home Secretary turned to the case of naturalised British subjects of hostile origin or association; one of his first acts as Home Secretary had been to devise an amendment in the Defence of the Realm regulations, under which a British subject might be required to live in a particular place or to submit to other conditions for the safety of the State. Such a person must be reported to the Home Secretary by the Naval or Military authorities or by one of the Advisory Committees which dealt with exemptions from internment. Moreover, any order made under the new regulation must contain express provisions for securing the right of the person affected to make any representations he wished to the Advisory Committee.

The Home Secretary announced that naturalisation was now refused to all enemies except in the case of women who, being British by birth, became German by marriage to Germans, and now being widows wished to escape the stigma of their German names; and also in the very rare case of persons whose services were specially needed for work which they could not do as enemies. As to incendiarism, he assured the House that the danger would

be carefully watched, but warned the public against forgetting that fires were quite common in times of peace. He stated that over 2,000,000 articles for war use (coal sacks, hammocks, cartridge bags and similar stores) had been made by the inmates of prisons, and orders were now in hand for 1,000,000 more.

On June 21 the Chancellor of the Exchequer moved a resolution in the House of Commons to empower the Government to introduce a Loan Bill; and explained to the House the terms of the proposed new war loan. He did not specify any special amount required, but the leading points of the issue were as follows: The loan to be issued at par, and to carry interest at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; the State had the right to repay at par in 1925 or at any subsequent date, and the investor could in any case demand his money back in 1945. The instalments covered a period from application to October 26, and the dividend of the first half-year was to be paid on December 1. Holders of the first war loan issued the previous November, of Consols and of two and a-half and two and three-quarters Government annuities could on certain conditions convert their holdings into new war loan stock. For every hundred pounds an investor put into the new loan, he could have an equal amount of his holdings in the first loan taken up at the price of issue, 95*l.*, and convert it into new loan stock by paying an additional 5*l.* In other words, to gain this advantage the investor had to double his holdings in war stock. Any one with 75*l.* in Consols could convert it into 50*l.* in the new loan by first applying for 100*l.* stock of the new loan. This arrangement made Consols exchangeable at 66 $\frac{2}{3}$. Annuities were to be exchangeable in the proportion of 78*l.* in two and a-half per cents. and 67*l.* in two and three-quarters per cents. to 50*l.* of the new loan. The minimum subscription through the Bank of England was to be as usual 100*l.* For the small investor, however, bonds of 5*l.* to 25*l.* were to be on sale at the post offices; these bonds carried the same rate of interest, $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., as subscriptions through the Bank. For the working classes, war loan vouchers for 5*s.* or any multiple of 5*s.* were to be sold at the post offices, and at the offices of trade unions, friendly societies, and factories and workshops. The interest on these vouchers was to be not $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. but 5 per cent. per annum for every complete calendar month. If at any time the investor wanted to convert his vouchers into money he could lodge them in the Post Office Savings Bank and immediately withdraw them as cash, but without receiving any interest. The list of applications for the loan was to be closed on or before July 10.

In the discussion which followed Mr. McKenna's speech general agreement was expressed with the scheme; and a financial resolution was agreed to, thus enabling the prospectus of the loan to be issued the same evening and subscriptions to

be invited the following day. Mr. McKenna then brought in at once the War Loan Bill and it was read a first time.

The debate on the second reading which took place next day (June 22) displayed still further the satisfaction of the House. Mr. Goldstone referred to the position of friendly societies and trade unions with large holdings in Consols. It would be impossible for them, he said, to raise the fresh capital for the investment of 100% in the war loan, which was a necessary preliminary to the conversion of every 75% of Consols into 50% of war stock; and he suggested that they should be allowed to purchase 100% of the war loan by the simpler expedient of exchanging Consols at 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ and paying the remaining 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ in cash. It was also urged for the same reason that the investor in the first war loan should be relieved of the obligation of having to acquire 100% of the new loan before he could convert 100% of his old stock into new stock. Mr. Hogge considered that all he ought in fairness to be asked to do was to make up the difference in price between his 95% old stock and 100% new stock by the payment of a five-pound note.

But the Chancellor of the Exchequer would make no such concessions. Holders of Consols and old war stock must first put 100% into the new loan before they could convert. "We are not converting for the sake of converting," he said; "we convert in order to induce people to give us more money." Most members agreed with Mr. McKenna that the terms as they stood were sufficiently advantageous to raise a loan even of the magnitude required; and the Bill was then read a second time. The reception of the loan in the City was of the most cordial kind, its main provisions being warmly applauded.

The next business of the House of Commons was to deal with the Munitions of War Bill: in which the new Minister of Munitions embodied his plans for increasing the output of munitions of war. Introducing the Bill on June 23, Mr. Lloyd George declared that the Central European Powers were turning out 250,000 shells a day; and said that if we were in earnest we could surpass that enormous production. Dealing with the organisation of his department Mr. Lloyd George stated that he had secured some of the best business brains of the country. He had decided to rely on a policy of decentralisation, and each of ten munition areas would do its share of the national task under a committee of management of local business men. The immediate problem to be tackled was that of labour; and he emphasised the difficulties caused by slackness, trade-union restrictions and competition between employers for labour. His chief proposals for the mobilisation of labour were that there should be no strike or lock-out; any dispute must be referred to arbitration. As many skilled men as possible were being brought back from the ranks of the Army; seven days were given for the

voluntary enrolment of skilled men in a mobile munition corps, and powers were taken to enforce the contract entered into by these volunteers. There was to be a Government control of the workshops, and a munitions court consisting of a president appointed by the Government, and an employer and a trade unionist as assessors who would have power to inflict penalties. No man could leave one yard and be taken on at another without producing a satisfactory certificate from his old firm. Trade union regulations restricting output were to be suspended; and employers' profits were to be limited.

The provision on which Mr. Lloyd George laid special stress was the appeal for volunteers for munition work. The trade unions, he said, fully recognised that if there was an inadequate supply of labour, compulsion would be inevitable. The unions asked for seven days in which to recruit the necessary number of volunteers; a beginning would be made the following day, and he believed that the appeal would be successful and that the need for industrial compulsion would to that extent be removed.

Mr. Hodge for the Labour party pledged the trade unions to do everything in their power to make the scheme a success, and freely admitted that the Bill was not only necessary but extremely urgent. Captain Guest then intervened to condemn the system of voluntary recruiting as unfair, indiscriminating and expensive, and to advocate the establishment of compulsory service; but the Prime Minister objected that the subject could not properly be raised during the present debate. Mr. Pease mentioned many things which the late Government had not realised at the beginning of the war, but which had come to the fore with time. They had, for instance, no idea of the large proportion of high explosive shells which now appeared to be necessary, nor of the kind of guns that were most effective in trench warfare; they had no idea of the number of machine-guns which could be effectively used, nor of the character of hand grenades. Sir Arthur Markham described the lack of organisation at the War Office during the previous nine months under the control of Lord Kitchener as a scandal to the country. He insisted that Mr. Lloyd George's speech admitted all through the absolute incompetence of the War Office. If Lord Kitchener had not repulsed business men from the first the position would have been very different.

The second reading of the Bill was taken on June 28. Several of the speeches strongly criticised the late Government for not having realised long before the terrible seriousness of the struggle. Mr. Ronald McNeill said that military history taught the lesson that the difference between success and disaster in war was often not a matter of months or days but of hours. Yet ten months after the declaration of war the country was told by the new Minister of Munitions that if it kept up its maximum production

of guns and ammunition the Army would soon be able to meet the enemy. Mr. Hodge, speaking for the Labour party, took the same line; if the real situation had been laid candidly before the country at the beginning of the war many difficulties would have been avoided. The working classes, now that they knew the facts, were prepared to suspend their trade-union rights. "It is better to give up such privileges as we have than to have no liberties at all if the Germans should be successful." Even Sir E. Cornwall, a Liberal member, joined in the criticism of the late Government.

The main attack on the Bill, however, was made by Mr. Snowden, who denied that the Labour party represented the rank and file of the trade unionists. He affirmed that the Bill tried to put on to working classes the blame which was properly due to the inefficiency of the Government. Mr. Snowden received little support, however, from any part of the House; and Mr. Arthur Henderson, replying on behalf of the Government, mentioned that at the final conference between the Minister of Munitions and the representatives of Labour the principles of the measure were unanimously approved. He also stated that a large revenue would come to the Exchequer under the arrangement by which the profits of munition firms were limited to a fifth over the average of the two preceding periods. Mr. Pringle then attacked the compulsory provisions of the Bill, and after a few words from Mr. Lloyd George it passed its second reading.

The Munitions of War Bill passed through the committee stage on July 1. Mr. Lloyd George had endeavoured to remove the obstacles which threatened to delay its progress by meeting privately the chief critics of the measure. In order to meet the opposition of the miners and cotton operatives, he introduced an amendment to the effect that in the case of any industry where the Minister of Munitions was satisfied that effective means existed to secure a settlement without stoppage of any dispute arising on work other than munitions work, no proclamation should be made in reference to the dispute. Mr. Lloyd George said that it did not matter to the Government what machinery was used, so long as it would prevent strikes and lock-outs; but he made it clear that in cases where the machinery did not prove effective, power was retained to apply the provisions of the Bill. Mr. Stephen Walsh, speaking for the miners, said that the alternatives before the Minister had been to make use of existing machinery which had proved immensely effective, or to erect a constitution on paper which would come into collision with the existing machinery and introduce chaos where they wanted organisation. The miners' leaders had given a solemn promise that no stoppages of work should take place during the continuance of the war; and they knew better than any other members that that promise would be redeemed.

Criticism of the proposal to limit the divisible profits of con-

trolled establishments turned chiefly upon the unfairness of taking from one firm what another was allowed to retain. But Sir John Simon showed that this action did not prejudice in any way the principle of taxing all war profits; and the clause carried into effect a bargain that skilled workers who placed themselves under the operation of the Bill should not make extra exertions for the purpose of rolling up profits for private individuals. The Home Secretary announced that there would be some adjustment of the rule that profits would be limited to an increase of one-fifth upon the average profits earned in two years before the war. In this way the provision of new machinery or new buildings or new capital to secure increased output would be met. In deciding what the divisible profit should be the Government would be guided by a small impartial committee, of which Sir Henry Babington Smith would be the chairman.

Mr. Snowden moved an amendment providing that in the consideration of any application for an advance of rates of wages increases in the prices of necessaries should be taken into account. The amendment was pressed to a division by the Labour group and negatived by seventy-nine votes to eleven.

A new clause was then moved by Sir Henry Dalziel to provide that as soon after the date of the passing of the Act as might be found expedient, all powers at present exercised by the Ordnance Department of the War Office in respect to the supply of munitions of war should be transferred to the new Minister of Munitions. He vigorously criticised the apparent failure of the Department to equip the armies which had been recruited since the war began. He said that we had the bravest army in the world; but what was bravery if the men were not equipped on something like the same scale as the enemy? What chance had our men with half the number of machine-guns to the battalion that the enemy possessed? He contended that the Ordnance Department had let down Lord Kitchener. "The person chiefly responsible for this is Colonel von Donop; and I ask that the powers he has hitherto exercised should be taken away from him and handed to the new Ministry, and another sphere found for his labours. If the Government have not the courage to scrap a colonel, then they have not the nerve to win the war." The amendment, however, was rejected.

The Bill was read a second time in the House of Lords on July 2. Lord Curzon, in moving it, said that as long as the present state of things continued it was no use concealing the fact that the situation was one of great anxiety. It was not unfair to speak of the country as being in "grave peril." He believed, however, that broadly speaking the nation now realised the magnitude of the issues before it; referring to the effects of the Bill, he said he did not think it rash to look to a time in the present year when the output would not only in most respects satisfy our

own needs, but would also minister to the even more crying needs of some of our allies. He mentioned that the bureau for munition workers had enrolled in one week more than 46,000 men.

Lord Bryce emphasised the importance of organising the scientific resources of the country. Though our scientific men were not so numerous as those of Germany, they were fully equal to them in competence and zeal. He was sure they would welcome any steps for enabling them to give more efficient service. Lord Loreburn expressed strong disapproval of the policy of reticence; the true way of inducing the people to do their duty was to let them know the truth. Lord Grimthorpe urged that fuller advantage should be taken of the resources of Canada, which was only producing 40,000 shells a day and could produce 200,000. In his reply Lord Curzon said that the fuller utilisation of the services of the men of science was under the consideration of the Prime Minister and the First Lord of the Admiralty. He did not think anybody could accuse the Government of reticence. At the end of the debate Lord Weardale made some remarks on the responsibility of the Prime Minister which were construed by Lord Crewe as being of the nature of a personal attack. Lord Crewe warmly declared that Mr. Asquith had deserved and still retained the complete confidence of the country. The Bill passed through its remaining stages and received the Royal assent the same afternoon.

In the meanwhile a campaign was being carried on in the country in support of the war loan, and to initiate a concerted national movement for war economy. The campaign was opened on June 29 by Mr. Asquith and Mr. Bonar Law, who addressed a crowded meeting in the Guildhall, consisting largely of bankers, merchants, manufacturers, shopkeepers and others whose commercial interests centred in the City of London. Mr. Asquith began by pointing out that the war was costing the country 3,000,000*l.* a day, while the national revenue from taxation was less than 750,000*l.* a day. To meet this outlay the Government had issued a loan, the only criticism of which was that its terms were too generous,—a fault, if at all, on the right side. It was the first great democratic loan in British history; every advantage given to the big capitalist was also given to the small investor. Mr. Asquith strongly emphasised the need for economy. Waste, whether by individuals or by communities, was “nothing short of a national danger.” According to statisticians the nation saved between 300,000,000*l.* and 400,000,000*l.* a year. Now it was spending on war 1,000,000,000*l.* a year. The only practicable way of meeting the deficiency without permanently injuring trade or credit was to economise by reducing all unnecessary expenditure on tea, tobacco, wine, sugar, petrol and other imported articles, and on beer and other home-made goods. “Is right or is force to dominate mankind?” said Mr. Asquith; “comfort, prosperity,

luxury—these we can purchase at the sacrifice of all that makes life, national or personal, worth living. Rather than make that sacrifice we shall fight to the end, to the last farthing of our money, the last ounce of our strength, the last drop of our blood.”

Mr. Bonar Law, who followed the Prime Minister, warned the nation that the present apparent prosperity of industry was on a false foundation, and that sooner or later collectively and individually the nation would have to pay for its unproductive expenditure. He had a special warning for the men who controlled large accumulations of capital. “Invest your money now,” he said; “the State needs the money, and by one means or another, if the money is here, the State will have it for the national needs.” A forced loan would be disastrous and it would not be necessary; for he was sure that the money which the country needed would be forthcoming. He expressed his confidence in the final outcome of the war, and deprecated both optimism and pessimism. The enemy were very strong; but the resources on the side of the Allies were far greater. “We are proud of our allies, but we must trust to ourselves; as a nation we are being tested and we shall stand the test; the staying-power of the nation will not fail us now.”

The Bishop of London, who was also present at the meeting, said that the Church was behind the nation in this war, and he offered to place the whole organisation of the Church in London at the disposal of the Government.

A week later, on July 6, the campaign for public economy received a further impetus from a resolution moved by Lord Midleton in the House of Lords. The resolution ran as follows: “that, in view of the necessary expenditure on the war, it is in the opinion of this House incumbent on His Majesty’s Government to take effectual steps to reduce the civil expenditure of the country.” Lord Midleton appealed for a thorough supervision of expenditure in all the civil departments. He said that 5,387 permanent officials had been appointed within recent years for the administration of old age pensions, national insurance and labour exchanges; and this he said was the number of combatant officers in the Army before the outbreak of war. Among other examples of expenditure, he mentioned that the National Insurance Commissioners within three months of their appointment ordered 2,800 tons of papers and 175,000,000 circulars to be printed. Forms were sent to the printer on Monday, withdrawn on Wednesday and replaced on Saturday. “It is up to the Government to put down with a rigorous hand extravagant waste of that kind which is due to slipshod methods.” He offered to find a small committee of men who, having spent years in the public service, would know how to effect economies amounting to between 5,000,000*l.* and 10,000,000*l.* in the departments before Christmas, without in the least impairing efficiency.

The reply of the Government was made by Lord Lansdowne. He said the financial position of the country which to his mind gave cause in some respects for anxiety even before the war, now required the gravest attention that Parliament could give to it, and promised on behalf of the Government that there should be a careful scrutiny of the action of all departments concerned with public expenditure, and that this scrutiny should be particularly exercised over appointments to new offices. He promised further that machinery should be set up for investigating the expenditure of departments, over which control at present was deemed to be insufficient.

Lord St. Aldwyn said that some people seemed to think that the entire burden of the war should be borne by the soldiers at the front and the income-tax payers at home. Great financial benefits had been conferred by legislation on the working classes during the previous ten years; and not only were they not asked to pay a penny of direct taxation in return but they were relieved of indirect taxation by the lowering of the duties on tea and sugar. He hoped the forthcoming taxing proposals of the Government would be wide enough to cover those classes whose earnings were so largely increased by expenditure for the purposes of the war.

Lord Haldane, on the other hand, urged that economies in the present might mean ruin in the future. He especially deprecated economies in education which were advocated both by Lord Midleton and Lord St. Aldwyn. The country would be poorer after the war and thereby it would lose that prestige which gave it its commanding position in commerce. It would have to face tremendous competition, and to do that successfully the coming generation must be well educated; and merchants and traders must be trained in the higher methods of business organisation. A still more despondent view was taken by Lord Loreburn, who said that if wisdom did not soon come to the Councils of Europe we should go straight to bankruptcy; and in some countries bankruptcy might be the prelude to revolution. Lord Midleton's motion was then agreed to.

On July 8 the House of Lords again discussed this question. Lord St. Davids invited the Government to consider the advisability of appointing a departmental committee to receive and consider suggestions for the improvement of the public service during the war, particularly in regard to economy in expenditure. Lord Crewe expressed a doubt whether any useful purpose would be served by adding to the number of war committees, of which there were about thirty already in existence; he said that some kind of outside supervision of expenditure by the civil departments might be required if any "longish stride" was to be made towards national economy. The difficulties in devising such a scheme were, however, very great. One was that supervision was not likely to be acceptable to the departments; especially if it were devoid of

that kind of responsibility to Parliament to which the country had been so long accustomed. Referring to the cry of employing business men instead of officials for all manner of purposes, he doubted whether it would tend to economy; but added that every effort was being made to utilise business machinery, knowledge and capacity in the administration of public affairs.

On June 30 the Chancellor of the Exchequer brought in a Bill in the House of Commons to enable trustees to borrow money to purchase a sufficient quantity of the new war loan to enable them to exercise the option of converting into the stock, in the interests of the estate, the Consols, annuities and old war loan which they held. The principle of the Bill was generally approved. Some members, however, feared that trustees, in order to redeem their loans, would quickly dispose of large quantities of the new war loan which they purchased, with the result that the stock would depreciate, and that investors who might otherwise apply immediately for the new loan would hold back so that they might take advantage of such depreciation. In the opinion of the Chancellor of the Exchequer these fears were groundless. He did not anticipate that the powers to borrow conferred by the Bill would be widely exercised. What a prudent trustee would do was to go through his list of securities and sell those for which he could obtain a ready market at a good price for re-investment in the new loan. He thought it unlikely that trustees who bought new loan on borrowed money would immediately throw the stock upon the market; they would rather sell it prudently and wisely in order to do the best for the estate. Mr. McKenna mentioned that in order to convert existing Consols, annuities, and old loan, something like 700,000,000*l.* or 800,000,000*l.* of the new loan would have to be bought. As many investors in the new loan would lock up their stock, it was obvious that applications for conversion would be in excess of the stock available; and that after the lists were closed there would be so large and active a market in the stock as to send it up to a premium. The Bill was then read a first and second time. The House afterwards went on to the second reading of the Naval and Military War Pensions Bill, which set up a statutory committee of the Royal Patriotic Corporation, consisting of twenty-six members with local advisory committees to decide questions in regard to war pensions to widows and orphans.

On the motion for the adjournment of the House, Sir Henry Dalziel and Sir Arthur Markham raised a debate on the management of the Press bureau. The question on which they wished to be informed was why the country was kept in ignorance of the lines held by the British and French in the Dardanelles, seeing that this information was well known to the enemy. Sir Henry Dalziel called for more frequent information regarding the operations in

the Dardanelles, and especially for a Ministerial statement as to the position there.

Sir John Simon, who as Home Secretary represented the Press bureau in the House, said that the bureau was not the author or collector of news, but simply the distributor of such news as in the opinion of the naval and military authorities could be published without giving valuable information to the enemy. He said that a short time previously a letter from the front appeared in the Press in which it was mentioned that a regiment was resting in a particular building which was rather minutely described, and that within twenty-four hours the place was smashed to pieces by German shells. The nature of the news to be published was not a matter for the House of Commons to decide, but must be left entirely in the hands of the naval and military experts.

On July 5 Lord Haldane addressed the members of the National Liberal Club on "The Duty of the Nation in this Crisis." He received a great demonstration from London Liberals; tributes being paid to his work as a member of the Government by Lord Lincolnshire, who was in the chair, and by the Prime Minister in a letter in which he expressed his regret that business of State prevented him from being present. In the course of his address, Lord Haldane defended General von Donop, whose name had been brought into prominence in connexion with the deficiency in the supply of shells. He gave an account of the meeting of a Cabinet Committee the previous October, stating that the Government, acting on General von Donop's advice, had then made provision for a supply of shells which "would have placed this country in a position of tremendous advantage." But difficulties arose between capital and labour which upset all the calculations of the munition manufacturers, and that was the cause of the present trouble.

This speech of Lord Haldane's led Mr. Lloyd George to take the unusual course of issuing a public statement in reply. He said that Lord Haldane's version of what took place at the Cabinet Committee was incomplete and in some material respects inaccurate. He wished to point out that the very fact of this conflict of memory having arisen showed the unwisdom of these partial and unauthorised disclosures of the decisions of highly confidential committees of the Cabinet. The incident produced at the time a considerable sensation in the lobby of the House, but it was soon afterwards forgotten.

There now occurred one of the most important and significant political events of the year. For a long time past an agitation had been conducted, as already stated, in favour of compulsory military service. A counter-agitation strongly defended the existing system of voluntary service. Intermediate between these two schools was a party which advocated the plan of taking a national register of the entire population which might be used

either for organising the people for voluntary service or as the essential basis for conscription. This middle line was the plan adopted at this time by the Government. A Bill for the institution of national registration was introduced by Mr. Long into the House of Commons on June 29, and there was an important debate when the second reading came up for consideration on July 5. Mr. Long opened the debate by denying that it concealed within it the policy of conscription. The Bill left the question of compulsory service exactly where it was. It provided for the registration of all persons of both sexes between the ages of fifteen and sixty-five; the register would therefore afford the necessary information if the need for conscription were to arise. Mr. Long recognised that there was a minority opposed to national registration. "The Bill," he said, "does not propose to compel any of those people to serve either in the field of battle or in the factory; but it will compel them to declare that they are doing nothing to help their country in her hour of crisis." He appealed to Liberal members to abandon the suspicion that the Bill indicated a victory of the Unionist portion of the Cabinet over the Liberal portion.

Sixteen motions hostile to the Bill had been placed on the notice paper; five of them were for absolute rejection, and one by Mr. Snowden described the Bill as "an unwarrantable interference with the personal liberty of the people." The debate was carried on, however, under a motion by Sir Thomas Whittaker, declining to proceed with the Bill until it was proved that the powers conferred under the Munitions of War Act were insufficient for the production of the necessary munitions. He said that he had much less confidence in the present Government than he had in the last; since many of the new Ministers were known to have views favourable to compulsion and conscription. Mr. J. M. Robertson, who had been a member of the late Government, likewise expressed suspicions as to the real object of the Bill. In his opinion it was introduced either to lead to conscription or to placate powerful classes who had conscription in view. Mr. Duke, who also spoke from the front Opposition bench, dissented from the distrust which had been expressed of the Unionist members of the Government. Mr. Arthur Henderson then announced the result of the household canvass which had recently been conducted by the Parliamentary Recruiting Committee. Of the 8,213,505 forms sent to heads of families less than half were returned. He contended that this result was an unanswerable argument for making compulsory the replies to the registration forms. The Bill was "a great measure of precaution," necessary in order to make the fullest use of the voluntary system of national service. Mr. Hobhouse, who had been a member of the late Cabinet, spoke strongly against the Bill, and declared that those opposed to it would offer resistance to every other measure of the Government

which contained the element of compulsion. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, winding up the debate for the Government, said that the Bill was a census Bill and like all census Bills provided for the compulsory answering of the questions put by its forms. In the division which followed, there were 30 votes in favour of Sir Thomas Whittaker's amendment and 253 against it; so that the second reading was carried by a majority of 223.

On July 7 the House considered the National Registration Bill in committee. Mr. Rawlinson proposed that the compilation should be called by the old name of census instead of register, which being unfamiliar was more likely to excite prejudice and apprehension. Mr. Long replied, however, that "register" better expressed the aim and purpose of the Bill. "Census" conveyed a desire simply for statistical information; "register" implied a record of the human resources of the country for the service of the State. An amendment moved by Mr. Whitehouse to exclude females from the register drew from Mr. Long the statement that in the first draft of the Bill the register had been confined to men. This information got into the Press, with the results that demands from women to be included in the Bill, expressed in the most indignant terms, came from all parts of the country. The amendment was negatived and a further amendment by Sir Leo Chiozza Money to reduce the maximum limit of age was withdrawn, after Mr. Long had mentioned that he had received numberless angry letters of protest from men over sixty-five against being denied the privilege of serving the State, and had said that it was open to these men voluntarily to put their names on the register.

Mr. King moved an amendment raising the minimum age from fifteen to eighteen; but Mr. Long said that it was possible circumstances might arise in which it would become necessary to make use of the services of boys and girls of fifteen and sixteen so as to relieve older people for more pressing work. Mr. King's amendment, however, was pressed to a division, and was defeated by 120 votes to 21. On another amendment Mr. Long announced that precautions would be taken to preserve the secrecy of the information given. He admitted that the questions asking for the age and condition of every person—whether single, married or widowed—might be regarded as prying into matters generally held as private and domestic, and could only be justified by a national emergency. That being so, it was proper that the greatest care should be taken to prevent the information being used for the gratification of idle curiosity or for any purpose but the service of the State. Sir Frederick Banbury moved to amend the question whether a person was skilled in and able and willing to perform any work other than the work, if any, at which he was employed, by leaving out the words "and willing"; he desired that the obligation to serve the State should be placed

directly on every man. Mr. Long opposed the amendment and it was negatived after some discussion.

The Committee stage of the Registration Bill in the House of Commons was concluded on July 8. Mr. Long moved the insertion of a new subsection, inflicting penalties upon any one who violated the secrecy of the returns; and the chief outstanding point of controversy was the manner in which the register was to be applied to Ireland. Under the Act as originally introduced the register was only to be taken in such parts of Ireland as the Lord-Lieutenant might direct, and it was then to be compiled by the Registrar-General from information supplied by the constabulary and by the council of any county borough which might be desirous of assisting. As the Bill stood, there was to be no distribution of forms as in England and Scotland, and accordingly no one was to be asked whether he was able and willing to do for the State any work apart from his ordinary vocation. Mr. Ronald McNeill asked why the Act was to be applied to Ireland in this piecemeal fashion at the option of the Lord-Lieutenant; and Sir J. Lonsdale joined him in declaring that in Ulster at least there was a general desire that the people should be given the opportunity of offering their services to the State.

Mr. Birrell in reply explained that it was necessary to differentiate Ireland from Great Britain owing to her peculiar social conditions. Males between the ages of fifteen and sixty-five numbered 1,325,000; of these 1,054,000 lived, he said, in the depths of the country, and 800,000 at least were small farmers or agricultural labourers; and having regard to the scanty supply of labour any interference with them would, Mr. Birrell contended, seriously affect the food supplies of the kingdom. There remained only 271,000 males in the towns and cities; and as to these the Chief Secretary stated that so thoroughly was Ireland already dissected and parcelled out that all the necessary information concerning them could be obtained at once and without expense. He added, however, that county councils as well as borough councils would be allowed to assist in the compilation. After some further discussion, Sir Edward Carson, the Attorney-General, interposed to say that the inhabitants of any part of Ireland who desired to be registered would be given the opportunity of doing so, and also of declaring the nature of the work which they were able and willing to perform for the State.

Mr. Long accepted an amendment providing that a prosecution for refusal to register should not be instituted against any person under the age of eighteen. During the report stage, however, he indicated that an amendment would be introduced in the House of Lords to make sixteen the minimum age of registration, as this was the legal age at which a person became liable to prosecution. There would be no exemption from punishment for offences under the Act. Having passed its committee and report stages the Bill was read a third time with only one dissentient voice.

The Bill was read a second time in the House of Lords on July 13. Lord Lansdowne in moving it said it had been freely stated that the Bill was intended to introduce compulsory service by a side wind. The only approach to compulsion in the Bill was compulsory registration. As to compulsory service, either in the Army or in industrial matters, there was not a word in the Bill. Nothing could be done in the direction of compulsory service without further legislation. He was often asked, Did this Bill bring us nearer compulsory service? In a sense he did not think it did; he did not believe that voluntary service with its present anomalies and injustices would be tolerated very much longer by the country; if voluntary service was to be given a chance at all, it must, he thought, obtain that chance under the provisions of this Bill. In another sense he admitted that the Bill did bring us nearer compulsory service. If compulsory service ever came, then the register would greatly assist in introducing it, because it would shorten the interval which would have to elapse between the decision to resort to compulsion and the actual application of that measure. Could anybody tell how long the war would last, or give a guarantee that we should be able to bring it to a close without compulsory service? During the last few months the stream of men had been flowing in much greater volume than the stream of ammunition. Were we quite sure that before long the case might not stand exactly the other way? Should we not be much better off with this Bill on the statute book than we should be without it? We could not predict the duration of the war; we could not say whether we should bring it to a proper conclusion without resort to compulsion. Those who objected to the Bill on the ground that it brought us nearer to compulsion would deny to Lord Kitchener now a measure which he required in order to prosecute the voluntary recruitment of the Army, and would thwart and impede him at a future time should he hereafter desire to retain this weapon in his hands in order that the war might not be brought to an inglorious conclusion.

The second reading of the Bill was then passed; and the following day the remaining stages in the House of Lords were concluded. There was a short discussion on a few points of detail in committee; and a new subsection was inserted to enable persons living in areas outside the Act to record their willingness to render useful service where they desired to do so.

On July 13 the House of Commons transacted various other business of importance. The conclusion of the campaign in German South-West Africa furnished the occasion for a resolution which placed on record the grateful appreciation by the House of the distinguished skill and ability with which General Botha had planned and conducted the campaign, and of the eminent services rendered by him, by General Smuts, and by the forces

of the Union. In moving the resolution, Mr. Asquith paid high tribute to the admirable strategy of General Botha and to the combined mobility, endurance, and valour of the Union troops, which made effective resistance at any point impossible. The services rendered to the Empire by the Prime Minister of the Union were, he said, inestimable. Mr. Bonar Law, who seconded the resolution, said that, to the surprise of our enemies, the Dominions had come of their own free will, not only to help us in our quarrel but to defend the Empire which was assailed, and which was theirs as much as ours. Mr. Chaplin and Mr. T. P. O'Connor endorsed the previous speakers' words, and the resolution was carried unanimously.

On the same day Mr. Runciman made a statement as to the Government scheme for insurance against aircraft and bombardment risks. He said that they proposed to adopt the plan formulated by the Committee appointed on June 21, which was based on the assumption that a sufficient number of fire insurance companies would be prepared to act as agents of the Government. It would also be necessary to establish a State Insurance Office to supplement the work of the fire offices. There were to be two forms of policy, one against aircraft risks only, and the other against aircraft risks and bombardment risks; that was to say, bombardment by hostile guns not landed on British territory. The rates were as follows:—

(1) Buildings, rent and contents of private dwelling-houses in which no trade or manufacture was carried on—2s. and 3s.

(2) All other buildings and their rents—3s. and 4s. 6d.

(3) Farm stocks alive or dead—3s. and 4s. 6d.

(4) Contents of all buildings other than those specified in (1) and (5)—5s. and 7s.

(5) Merchandise at docks and public wharves, in carriers' and canal warehouses and yards, in public mercantile storage, warehouses, and in transit by rail; timber in the open; mineral oil tanks and stores (wholesale)—7s. 6d. and 10s.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer then announced the result of the subscription to the new war loan. He said that estimates of 700,000,000*l.* and 800,000,000*l.* had appeared in the papers, but such a total as that was neither expected nor desired; it would have created an unnecessary disturbance in our business and financial arrangements. Mr. McKenna stated that the amount of subscriptions through the Bank of England amounted to 570,000,000*l.*, subscribed by 550,000 persons; and through the Post Office 15,000,000*l.*, subscribed by 547,000 persons. Mr. McKenna explained that the gigantic total of the subscriptions through the Bank of England represented only new money; it did not include any stock which would be issued for the purposes of conversion. The figures given for Post Office transactions were calculated up to four days previously; but subscriptions through

the Post Office had not then closed and he could not at present state the number of vouchers sold. This total of nearly 600,000,000*l.*, which was far beyond any amount ever subscribed in the world's history, had been obtained by the patriotic response of the whole people.

On July 12 Sir Henry Dalziel started an important debate in the House of Commons on the question of cotton reaching the enemy through neutral States. He said it was very serious that after nearly a year of war we allowed the most essential factor in making high explosives to go to our enemy. We were assisting Germany to make munitions to kill our soldiers, at the same time that we were not doing perhaps everything we could to give munitions to our own soldiers. He showed how enormously the importation of raw cotton and cotton yarn had leaped up since the outbreak of war in Holland, Norway, Sweden and Denmark, and said that the facts called for explanation from the Government; if there was a defence the people outside ought to know it. Why had not cotton been declared contraband?

Lord Robert Cecil admitted the enormous importance of the subject and assured the House that the Government were alive to its seriousness, but said it raised very difficult international questions. The Government had to try to devise a policy which would respect the legitimate rights of neutrals, and yet would safeguard our own legitimate interests, and inflict as much injury as possible on Germany. The Government had so far been acting upon a plan which they believed was effective if not absolutely perfect; if they proved to be wrong, no regard for Ministerial consistency would prevent them carrying out whatever plans were necessary to stop the leakage. He described an agreement made in Holland by which all cotton was consigned to the Netherlands Overseas Trust, a body of men of the highest possible character and reputation, which guaranteed that no part of the cotton should be allowed to go into Germany. If they declared cotton contraband to-morrow, they had still to face the question of cotton going from America to neutral countries. To purchase the whole of the cotton crop of America would be a very serious financial undertaking. The Government believed they were already preventing the overwhelming part of the necessary cotton from reaching Germany; but subject to the limitations of justice and international law they were ready to adopt any further plan which was really effective.

The same question was raised by Lord Charnwood in the House of Lords on July 15, but Lord Crewe had no change of policy to announce. In present circumstances he said the Government had no intention of placing cotton on the contraband list, though they left the door open to take that step at some future time should it be necessitated by paramount military considerations. He believed, speaking in general terms, that fresh

supplies of cotton, so far as our Navy could prevent them, were now prevented from reaching Germany. It was obviously to the interest of some traders in neutral countries to forward goods to Germany; but efforts were continually being made, by friendly and sometimes delicate negotiations with traders in the four neutral countries concerned, to obtain guarantees that they would not send goods into a belligerent country. Our main goal and purpose was to limit the export to these neutral countries to the precise amount of their actual needs, calculated on the average imports during the last few years. Lord Emmott said it was the fact that hundreds of thousands of bales of cotton over the normal consumption of Holland and Sweden had gone into those countries, and no doubt many of those bales had found their way into Germany. But from statistics recently collected by the war trade department, he was persuaded that the amount of cotton which had reached the Scandinavian countries and Holland in the last two months was not above the normal.

The report stage of the Naval and Military War Pensions Bill gave rise to a discussion on an amendment by Mr. Price moving the omission of the clause which defined the powers of the statutory committee set up by the Bill. He wished to have a new Bill dealing with the employment of returned soldiers, and was supported in his contention by Mr. Goldstone, who foresaw labour troubles after the war, owing to the large number of returned soldiers who would be seeking employment. The amendment was negatived, however, and a few days later the Bill passed its third reading.

On July 5 it was announced that the country was to benefit once more by the services of Lord Fisher. His new appointment was as chairman of the Inventions Board, which was being established to assist the Admiralty in co-ordinating and encouraging scientific effort in its relation to the requirements of the Naval Service. The arrangements for the organisation of the Board were completed about a fortnight later. It comprised a central committee and a panel of consultants composed of scientific experts who were to advise the main committee on questions referred to them. The central committee consisted, in addition to Lord Fisher, of Sir J. J. Thomson, O.M., F.R.S.; Hon. Sir C. A. Parsons, K.C.B., F.R.S., and Mr. G. T. Beilby, F.R.S.

In the middle of July the question of national economy was brought prominently before the public attention. On the 14th the Prime Minister announced in the House of Commons that a committee was being formed under the presidency of the Chancellor of the Exchequer to consider the matter; while in the House of Lords Lord Hylton admitted the vital importance of the matter; but said that much had already been done with regard to local services of a civilian character. He stated, for instance, that from March 26 to June 30 of the previous year

four departments had sanctioned 1,627 loans, amounting to about 3,300,000*l.*; in the same period of the present year they had sanctioned 459 loans, making about 1,600,000*l.*, including 1,129,346*l.* for war requirements. Any further applications from local authorities would be scrutinised with unusual care. On the same day the third reading of the Finance (No. 2) Bill was taken in the House of Commons; and Mr. McKenna in reply to numerous questions denied that the Government had not made every effort to pay for the war. In the first year they had raised 68,000,000*l.* by new taxation; having regard to its cost the war must be comparatively short. A war which cost a thousand millions a year to more than one of the combatants could not possibly be maintained for twenty years like the Napoleonic wars. He had given the House an estimate of the cost of the war for one year; no man could estimate its cost if it lasted three years. It was impossible for the Treasury to dominate the policy of the War Office and the Admiralty in war. He agreed that extra taxes were necessary, for the tax-payer must bear a fair share of the cost of the war; as far as possible taxation should be direct. The Chancellor of the Exchequer added that though he thought the charges of waste were exaggerated, he recognised the importance of the matter and was going into it personally with Lord Kitchener. He assured the House that every possible effort would be made to avoid waste.

On July 15 in Committee of Supply further proof was given of the general desire for national economy. The vote of 250,000*l.* for works to be carried out in relief of unemployment was withdrawn, as also was the vote of 25,000*l.* for the work of pathological laboratories.

On July 20 both Houses of Parliament were again occupied with the subject of retrenchment. In the House of Commons Mr. Asquith announced the terms of reference of the Retrenchment Committee which was to inquire and report what savings of public expenditure could, in view of the necessities created by the war, be effected in civil departments without detriment to the interests of the State. The Chancellor of the Exchequer was chairman, and the other members consisted of Mr. Montagu (Financial Secretary to the Treasury); Lord Midleton; Mr. H. T. Baker, M.P.; Sir Leo Chiozza Money, M.P.; Mr. J. F. Mason, M.P.; Mr. Evelyn Cecil, M.P.; Mr. J. H. Thomas, M.P.; Sir Gilbert Claughton (chairman of the London and North-Western Railway); Mr. Gaspard Farrer, and Mr. Harold Cox. In the House of Lords, Lord Lansdowne explained that the Retrenchment Committee would deal not with the whole of the public expenditure but with the civil expenditure of the Government. In the strain and stress of a great war it was impossible to impose a public inquiry on the War Office and the Admiralty without running the risk of para-

lysing their activities. Neither of these departments was indifferent to the cause of public economy; the War Office was most anxious to stop any unnecessary expenditure or waste. Lord Kitchener was going into the matter himself with the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and had appointed a departmental committee in the War Office to deal with the whole subject. Lord Cromer urged that if anything was to be done in the way of public economy the example must be set by Parliament. The Treasury should cease to be a spending department and should be brought back to its proper function of controlling the expenditure of other departments. He dissented from the view that it was impossible to exercise any control over naval and military expenditure. Lord Midleton said he had received from all parts of the country strong remonstrances against unnecessary expenditure in connexion with the military forces. If the Government's action stopped at the appointment of this civil committee the country would be disappointed. Lord Crewe, in reply, insisted that a formal inquiry into the expenditure of the naval and military departments was undesirable and impracticable during the war; but he understood that the *personnel* of the Treasury had been strengthened, and greater supervision would be exercised.

On the same day Mr. Asquith moved in the House of Commons a new supplementary vote of credit of 150,000,000*l.* He explained that it would be the third passed for the present financial year, bringing the total for the year up to 650,000,000*l.* The total since the outbreak of war was 1,012,000,000*l.* If future expenditure were taken at about 3,000,000*l.* a day the balance of 199,000,000*l.* remaining from votes of credit would last till September 21. But the daily rate of expenditure was necessarily uncertain, and it might be substantially more than 3,000,000*l.* a day; it might be assumed that the existing vote of credit would last till the end of August, and a further vote now of 100,000,000*l.* would carry on the public service to the end of September. But in view of the serious consequences that would arise from any material deficiency of supplies, he asked that the vote might be increased to 150,000,000*l.* to make the position absolutely secure. It was expedient that the Government should accelerate and make ample provision for their obligations to the Bank of England, and be in a position to meet the financial requirements of our allies. The latter item might grow with the adherence to our cause of States which had not taken part in the war in its earlier stages. In the last vote of credit the advances by way of loan were limited to the Dominions and Protectorates and the allied Powers: those limiting words had on the present occasion been omitted. "I am sure," he added, "that the House will not ask me to go into details; I am sure the Government ought to have in that matter a free hand."

Sir F. Cawley expressed surprise that Lord Kitchener had

not given some answer to the indictment made against the War Office. It was said that thousands of our troops had died because of the want of ammunition and machine-guns; he did not want to hang anybody, but he wanted to be assured that those who had proved themselves so grossly incompetent should not have the chance of being incompetent in the future. Unless Lord Kitchener gave some proper explanation why these things happened and said who was to blame, he should blame Lord Kitchener for them.

During the middle of July Sir Robert Borden, the Prime Minister of Canada, was in England; and on July 13 he was entertained at a luncheon of the United Kingdom branch of the Empire Parliamentary Association. Mr. Balfour was in the chair, and Mr. Bonar Law, who proposed the toast of "Canada and the War," paid a tribute to the valour of the Canadian soldiers. Sir Robert Borden in his reply declared that although they were not a military nation in Canada, they had sent overseas up to the present 75,000 men, and had in Canada already another 75,000 men in training, with organisation being prepared as rapidly as possible for their advent to the front when needed. He brought from the people of Canada a message that in whatever was necessary to bring this war to an honourable and triumphant conclusion Canada was prepared to take her part.

On the following day there was a notable departure from precedent in the attendance of Sir Robert Borden at a meeting of the Cabinet by invitation of the Prime Minister. This was the first occasion on which a Prime Minister of the Dominions had taken part in an ordinary Cabinet Meeting.

On July 9 Lord Kitchener addressed a public meeting in the Guildhall presided over by the Lord Mayor. The object of his address was to impress the continuous need for more men; he said that he still believed that the war would be a long one, and that although we were now in an immeasurably better position than we were ten months ago, the situation was no less serious. The time had now come when there was required something more than had already been done to ensure the demands of our forces overseas being fully met. He pointed out that the larger our armies were, the larger must be the flow of recruits required to make good their wastage. For this reason the Registration Bill had been introduced. "When this registration is completed we shall anyhow be able to note the men between the ages of nineteen and forty not required for munition or other necessary industrial work, and therefore available, if physically fit, for the fighting line. Steps will be taken to approach with a view to enlistment all possible candidates for the army — unmarried men to be preferred before married men as far as may be." He addressed his appeal to two classes of men, those for whom it was claimed that they were indispensable, whether for work

associated with the army or for other purposes, and those to whom had been applied the ugly name of "shirkers"; to the former class he appealed seriously to consider whether their work was not such as might be carried on by persons unfit for military service; to the latter class he appealed in the name of conscience.

Other speeches were made by Sir Edward Carson and Lord Derby, both of whom emphasised the alternative method of compulsory service.

Meanwhile questions of labour still continued to cause grave anxiety. As early as May 2 a White Paper had been issued by the Treasury containing "report and statistics of bad time kept in shipbuilding, munitions and transport areas." A letter from Sir John Jellicoe was printed in this report, in which he expressed himself as being very uneasy about the labour situation on the Clyde and Tyne. At the beginning of May an effort was made to settle the disputes between coal-owners and miners by means of arbitration. The large additional profits accruing as a result of the war led the men to demand a war bonus in the shape of an advance of 20 per cent. on actual earnings. The coal-owners had replied to this demand by an offer of 10 per cent. Both parties now agreed to accept the Prime Minister's decision on the matter, and Mr. Asquith then wrote to the two sides stating that a case had been made out for an immediate advance of wages, and that the amount of the advance should be arranged by the district boards and committees. During the second week in July the situation in South Wales suddenly became extremely serious. The miners demanded a new minimum rate of wages at a higher figure than the maximum rate previously adopted. They demanded moreover that in future there should be no maximum rate; that the standard rates of 1879 and 1877 should be abolished and replaced by new standard rates 50 per cent. and 35 per cent. higher respectively; also that all men employed in afternoon and night shifts should be paid at the rate of six turns for five worked, and that every adult surfaceman should receive a minimum of 5s. 6d. per day.

An attempt to reach agreement was made by Mr. Runciman who suggested various modifications in the demands of the men. He agreed to the payment of men employed on the afternoon and night shifts of six turns for five. He proposed that the standard rates for surfacemen which were below 3s. 4d. per day should be advanced to 3s. 4d. per day: *i.e.* haulers employed on the afternoon and night shifts to be paid at the same rates as those on the day shift; a new standard of 50 per cent. on the 1879 standard to be established, and standards in operation other than the 1879 standard to be correspondingly adjusted; this alteration in the standard not to involve any change in wages. Finally he suggested that the minimum and maximum clauses in the expired agreement of 1910 should cease to be operative.

On July 12 a conference took place at Cardiff of delegates of the South Wales Miners' Lodges, in the course of which Mr. Runciman's proposals were rejected and the following resolution passed: "That we do not accept anything less than our original proposals, and that we stop the collieries on Thursday next [July 15] until these demands are conceded." The decision was carried by 1,894 votes against 1,037. On the day following this resolution, Mr. Runciman announced in the House of Commons that the Government had decided to apply by proclamation the provisions of the Munitions of War Act for the settlement of the difference. He justified the decision to apply this Act on the ground that the existence and the continuance of the dispute was prejudicial to the manufacture, transport and supply of munitions of war. Under these provisions it was an offence to take part in a strike or lock-out, unless the dispute had been reported to the Board of Trade, and the Board of Trade had not within twenty-one days referred it for settlement by one of the methods provided in the Act.

On July 14 the Executive Committee of the South Wales Miners' Federation again asked Mr. Runciman to take up the matter, and informed him that they had advised the men to go to work on day-to-day contracts until a settlement had been arrived at. Notwithstanding this advice the conference of miners' delegates decided by 180 votes to 113 not to accept the recommendation to return to work. The proclamation under the Munitions of War Act failed to have any effect, and a card vote was taken as to the commencement of the strike. This resulted in a decision to stop work by 88,950 votes to 47,450—a majority of 41,500. Mr. Runciman held a number of meetings with the coal-owners and the miners' leaders, but little advance towards a settlement was made, and in the meanwhile about 200,000 men were idle. On July 19 Mr. Lloyd George went down to Cardiff to make an effort to obtain a settlement. He impressed upon the men the gravity of the struggle in which the country was engaged, and was at length successful in inducing the strikers to give way. The settlement was on the lines of that drawn up by Mr. Runciman, but with two additions: (1) the new standard then offered *plus* 10 per cent. was established as the minimum; and (2) the agreement was to remain in force until six months after the termination of the war, and thereafter to be terminable upon three months' notice. A further clause was inserted to the effect that no one should be penalised for the part taken in the present dispute, and that every effort should be made by both parties to maintain and increase the output of coal to meet the national needs during the present emergency. The cost of the week's strike was estimated at about 1,500,000*l.* The news of the settlement was heard with great relief both in the House of Commons and the country. It was recognised, however, that the strike had been settled by Mr.

Lloyd George, and that the Munitions Act had failed to contribute to the result.

The continued increase in the price of coal caused the Government to introduce a Price of Coal (Limitation) Bill, which proposed to limit the selling price of coal at the pit-head with the object of stabilising the market during the coming winter. At the second reading in the House of Commons, on July 19, Sir Joseph Walton and Sir R. Cooper moved its rejection on the ground that it penalised one great industry while allowing others to make high war profits. Mr. Runciman defended the Bill on the ground of expediency. He said that if in the coming winter there was no check on pit-head prices the coal producers would have the markets pretty much at their mercy. He warned the House that profits made by coal-owners or in other businesses in excess of the previous year's profits were taxable, and would receive the attention of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who he expected would probably find it necessary to tax war profits heavily. It was not practicable to apply the Bill to contracts already made. The London coal merchants undertook not to increase the price more than a certain number of shillings during the summer, and they were prepared to give a similar undertaking for the coming winter. The Board of Trade proposed to publish what they considered to be the reasonable price for household coal in London and they would ask local authorities to do the same thing.

The House of Commons accepted with reluctance the principle of the Bill as a measure of expediency; and after some further debate the motion for rejection was withdrawn and the second reading carried. At the committee stage, on July 22, an amendment was moved to include contracts in the Bill. Mr. Healy said it was known that coal contracts were made in June, but the Government had delayed the Bill until June had passed. As a result contractors in August would be able to sell at 3s. less than the June contractors and so make a huge fortune. Sir A. Markham declared that many contracts had been made in the last few days, because coal-owners had threatened that if the coal was not contracted for now at their price they would refuse to supply it later. Mr. Runciman resisted the amendment. He said that it might be that some local authorities and others who were obliged to secure their supplies had made their contracts in the last few weeks and had been squeezed; but there was a very large number of local authorities and merchants who had not made their contracts, and they would obtain the benefit of the Bill. The delay in introducing the Bill was due to the labour troubles in nearly all the coalfields, and that was the only excuse he had to offer. The amendment struck at the root of commercial stability, and he hoped it would be withdrawn. He would undertake that the Government would consider what could be done on the report stage to meet the special case of local authorities and

public utility companies who had made their contracts. On this understanding the amendment was withdrawn.

On the following day the Government made an important concession. Mr. Runciman accepted an amendment providing that where, in a contract, prices had been charged above the price fixed by the Bill, the whole contract should not be invalid but should continue, subject to a reduction of price. Another amendment was also accepted, providing that if a person sold coal in contravention of the Act he should not be liable to a fine if he showed that he had reasonable grounds for believing that he was not committing an offence. An amendment limiting maximum retail prices in London to 15s. above the price at the pit-head fixed by the Bill was withdrawn, after Mr. Runciman had declared that any attempt to fix a flat rate was bound to be a disastrous failure. On the report stage of the Bill on July 27 Mr. Runciman gave effect to the concession which he had promised in regard to contracts. He also announced that he had been in communication with 200 of the largest coal-merchants in London and that they had undertaken to open dépôts for the sale of coal in small quantities at the price of the day, in order that poor people should not be placed at the mercy of hawkers.

On July 21 Lord Devonport again criticised in the House of Lords the system of recruiting. He said that according to his information he estimated that of the three million men who had joined the colours one million were married men, while a considerable number of single men were shirking their duty. That meant that a million women were in receipt of a separation allowance averaging 1*l.* each, so that we were paying 1,000,000*l.* a week in separation allowances alone. The number of married men serving with the colours was far too high. In any system known on the Continent the number of married men in an Army of three million would be about 400,000; we therefore had an excess of 600,000 which cost us about 30,000,000*l.* a year. Lord Kitchener had taken an unwarrantable step in extending the age from thirty-eight to forty; the proportion of married men at that age was 835 per 1000.

In his reply Lord Newton said that the number of married men then drawing separation allowances was approximately in the regular Army 606,000 and in the territorial force 237,000—a total of 843,000. The aggregate cost of separation allowances paid to the wives and children since mobilisation was approximately 25,000,000*l.* This sum did not include payments to dependants other than wives and children. The War Office would welcome any suggestion by which unmarried men might be enticed into the Army. Under a voluntary system in time of emergency we had to recruit men, how, when and where we could; and the country had expressed the determination that the dependants of soldiers should be treated with generosity.

On July 27 Lord Devonport again returned to the question of the enlistment of married men, and drew from Lord Newton fresh figures and a protest. The Paymaster-General admitted that the separation allowance now being paid amounted to something like 750,000*l.* a week. He protested that the attacks which had been made on the War Office on this question were unjustifiable; it was on Parliament and not on the War Office that the responsibility rested for this expenditure, which amounted to about 40,000,000*l.* a year.

On July 23 the House of Commons took the second reading of the Elections and Registration Bill. Mr. Long, who moved it, said that the object of the Bill was to postpone for a year all municipal and local elections, and to provide for the filling of casual vacancies by co-option. The Bill also suspended work on the register of voters after July 31, and would save the ratepayers 100,000*l.* Mr. Rawlinson objected to the breaking of contracts with revising barristers, and Mr. Pringle urged that to save a few thousand pounds at the expense of junior barristers was contemptible. Mr. McKinnon Wood replied that economy had never been opposed on more trivial, unfair and insincere grounds. If the register were continued it would be useless and thoroughly bad. Mr. Glyn-Jones, supporting the Bill, suggested that something could be done in committee to meet real grievances in respect of contracts, and pointed out that if a new register were now made all soldiers and sailors who were lodgers and had gone to the front would lose their votes.

On the same day in the House of Lords, Lord Crewe moved the second reading of the Naval and Military War Pensions Bill. An amendment was moved by Lord Midleton for the adjournment of the debate, on the ground that the Bill required more careful consideration. Lord Lansdowne offered an adjournment until the following Monday, but this failed to satisfy Lord Midleton, and his motion was agreed to. Lord Midleton protested that the whole financial basis of the Bill had been cut away in the House of Commons; he condemned the selection of the Royal Patriotic Fund Corporation as the statutory committee in preference to the Chelsea Hospital Board, and questioned the wisdom of appointing a new public body costing probably 25,000*l.* a year. Lord Lansdowne, in reply, urged the need for a statutory committee to secure uniform administration. Though the Soldiers and Sailors' Families' Association had rendered immense services, its committees were in no sense representative and could not therefore be entrusted with public funds. He hoped, however, that its members would serve on the local committees set up by the Bill.

On the following Monday, Lord Crewe again brought forward the second reading of the Naval and Military War Pensions Bill. He offered to place on the statutory committee two representatives of the Soldiers and Sailors' Families' Association, and two repre-

sentatives of the Soldiers and Sailors' Help Society; and to provide that in appointing local committees regard should be had to the representatives of societies who had hitherto undertaken the duties prescribed by the Bill. These concessions, however, failed to satisfy the critics of the Bill, and Lord Balfour of Burleigh moved the adjournment of the debate till after the recess. Lord St. Aldwyn complained that the Bill set up an entirely new department, involving considerable expenditure on which no check was provided; but Lord Lansdowne declared that it would be a serious misfortune if the Bill were laid aside for six or seven weeks or even longer. Lord Midleton, however, persisted that it was necessary to re-cast the Bill, to divide the temporary from the permanent, to maintain the voluntary system of workers and not to squeeze it out by a Government system of workers; they wished to discuss its entirely new financial basis. A division was then taken and Lord Balfour's motion was carried by 44 votes to 31, the Government thus being defeated by a majority of thirteen. A strong protest against the decision of the Lords was afterwards raised by members on the benches below the gangway in the House of Commons, and the Government were asked whether they intended to override the Peers' decision. Mr. Gulland, the Chief Whip, undertook to convey to the Prime Minister the views that had been expressed.

On the same day Lord Robert Cecil referred to the question of cotton, on the third reading of the Appropriation Bill in the House of Commons. He admitted that the position with regard to the enemy's trading in cotton was unsatisfactory; but he resented as untrue and incredibly offensive the charge which had been made by Mr. Hunt, that the Government were fighting with their gloves on. The Government he declared were determined to stop cotton from going into enemy countries, and would take any step necessary for the purpose, having due regard to the interests of neutrals. So far as stopping cotton going into an enemy country was concerned, it made no difference whether we declared cotton contraband or not. The only difference would be that we should be entitled to confiscate the cargo and perhaps the ship that was carrying it; but we could not stop contraband going to a neutral country, unless we had reason to suppose it was going through that neutral country to an enemy country.

On the same day also the Welsh Church (Postponement) Bill came on for second reading, and the Home Secretary moved the withdrawal of the Bill. Sir John Simon explained that the sole object of the Government was to avoid domestic controversy in time of war. The Suspension Bill would not receive support in all quarters of the House; the Government contemplated instead making an Order in Council postponing the date of the disestablishment till after the war. Sir Herbert Roberts, as a Welsh Non-conformist, expressed his satisfaction, and Lord Robert Cecil

emphasised the need for avoiding internal dissension. There was no question, he said, of a breach of faith on the part of the Government; as to the leaders of his party they had not changed their views on the Welsh Church question and their pledges were still binding.

When the Bill was withdrawn in the House of Lords on the following day (July 27), Lord St. Aldwyn expressed doubt whether the Government could by Order in Council postpone the date of disestablishment till after the conclusion of the war. To enable them to do this he appealed to the Government to consider whether the provisions of the Special Acts (Extension of Time) Bill could not be extended to the Welsh Disestablishment Act. Lord Crewe promised that careful consideration should be given to the question.

The motion for the adjournment of the House of Commons was moved by Mr. Asquith on July 28, and gave rise to a debate on a variety of topics. Mr. Asquith reminded the House that the war had become a struggle of endurance, and spoke confidently of the ultimate success of the allies. He passed in review the existing situation in the main theatres of war, paying a high tribute to the efforts which had been made by our Russian, Italian and French Allies. He made no statement as to the operations in Gallipoli, but assured the House that the confidence of the Government in the result of those operations was undiminished. In proposing the adjournment of the House for six weeks, he passed in review the main items of legislation which had occupied the summer, *viz.*, the War Loan Act, the Munitions Act and the National Registration Act; and he justified the length of the proposed adjournment on the ground that the Government had at present no further legislation to propose. He regretted that the War Pensions Bill had not become law. He said that recruiting for the Army was highly satisfactory, and that the latest returns had been the best for a long time past. The Ministry of Munitions had taken adequate steps to provide all those things necessary for the conduct of the war. There was no greater calumny than to say that our own people had not risen to a high and great occasion, unless it was to suggest that our gallant allies did not realise and appreciate to the full the contribution which we were making to the ultimate triumph of our common cause. Mr. Asquith moved that the House should adjourn until September 14. Sir H. Dalziel, supported by Sir A. Markham and Sir H. Craik, moved an amendment to the effect that it was not desirable that the House should adjourn for more than four weeks; but the amendment was not pressed to a division.

Mr. Lloyd George then rose to give an account of the work of the Munitions Department. It was found, he said, that the existing armament works had been allotted more work than they could accomplish, because of a dearth of machinery and labour.

For the latter reason four-fifths of the machines employed on Government work were not working at their full capacity. These firms had now been assisted considerably through the agency of the Munitions Ministry, and the co-operation of the labour exchanges. Nearly 100,000 volunteer ammunition workers had been enrolled; but as a large number of them were already engaged on Government work, only about one-fifth of them were available for ammunition production. Moreover thousands of highly skilled engineers had been released from the colours, and more thousands would become available in the next few weeks. Mr. Lloyd George then addressed himself to the trade union leaders, calling on them to bring pressure upon their men to suspend trade union practices which were reducing the output of shot and shell and other war materials by 25 per cent. The country had been divided into great co-operative areas, and management boards had been set up to organise the whole available machinery for increasing the output of munitions of war. In addition sixteen national factories, which were being supplied with the necessary machinery and labour, had been set up; and there were two or three national factories for the supply of special component parts of shells. In order to make up the inadequate supply of machine tools required, especially for shells of heavy calibre, all the great machine-tool-makers had agreed to come under direct Government control.

Finally the Minister of Munitions announced that as a result of his recent conference with the British and French military authorities at Boulogne it had been decided to embark on a new and great programme which would tax the engineering resources of the country for some months. In order to meet this new and gigantic demand, it would be necessary to set up immediately ten large national establishments in addition to those already referred to; they would be controlled by Government, and to provide them with labour the new munition volunteer army would be drawn upon. They would also have to draw upon men brought back from the Army and to utilise the assistance of women. The necessary machinery had been ordered; steps were being taken to erect the buildings, and he hoped the equipment would be ready in the next few weeks or months, which would enable them to equip our armies in such a way that even the best armies in Europe would not be able to claim superiority so far as war material was concerned.

Later in the debate Captain Guest renewed his appeal for compulsory service. A protest was raised by Mr. J. H. Thomas against any change of this character, unless the responsible Minister declared in Parliament that the nation had failed to give him the material he required. After some further discussion the debate came to an end and the House adjourned until September 14.

On July 22 the King started on a tour of inspection to in-

dustrial centres. He visited several munition factories at Coventry and then went to Birmingham, where he made a short speech in which he expressed the pleasure he had had in visiting the different munition works. He said he had not come to criticise but to show his interest in the country's efforts to meet the heavy demands for the means of carrying on the war. He fully appreciated the evident zeal and cheerfulness with which the hands were working, not only to maintain the present output but to increase it; he was confident that this would be done, and there would be but one certain result—victory.

On July 29 Mr. Lloyd George again addressed a conference of more than 2,000 representatives of the coal-mining industry in the London Opera House. The conference was held for the purpose of passing a resolution (unanimously adopted) to the effect that every effort should be made by owners and workmen alike to secure the greatest possible output of coal in the interest of the nation during the period of the war.

Sir John Simon, who was in the chair, said the means to this end was voluntary co-operation. About 250,000 miners had enlisted, and as a result the yield of coal had fallen by 3,000,000 tons a month. To make good that loss the Government suggested that masters and men in the different coal-fields should consider jointly whether they could suspend the Eight Hours Act, and the rules and customs which were established for the protection of labour. In return the Government pledged themselves to restore the Act, rules and practices, the moment the danger was passed. Mr. Lloyd George then impressed upon the audience the gravity if not the perilousness of the situation. He said that there were two parties in the country, one of which could see nothing but misfortunes ahead while the other was correspondingly optimistic. To him there was truth in both views, but recent events in the East showed at least that we should have to put forth all our strength; the retreat of the Russians implied that a larger share than ever of the burden of the struggle would be cast upon the shoulders of Britain, and he appealed to his audience not to shrink from it.

Mr. R. Smillie, President of the Miners' Federation of Great Britain, said the miners were willing to meet the employers "nationally," and to discuss whether there were districts in which for the time being certain policies might be given up in the interests of the nation. If a case were made out they might agree to suspend the Eight Hours Act; they might even consider a reduction in the age limit for boy labour and the greater employment of women; but he hoped that these would be last steps, to be taken only if the need were vital.

At the end of July a White Paper was issued containing the report of a Military Court of Inquiry which had been constituted by the Army Council for the purpose of investigating the pro-

ceedings of the British Empire Committee. The allegations into which the court had to inquire were those of misapplication by certain persons of a sum subscribed towards the British Empire Committee; the obtaining by those persons of certain contracts connected with the administration of the 17th (Empire Battalion) Royal Fusiliers; the receipt by the same persons of a commission in connexion with a contract made with the British Empire Committee; and the allegation that they had been permitted to continue their contracts after the receipt of the commission had become known.

The court in announcing their findings placed on record their appreciation of the admirable services of the British Empire Committee. They were, however, of opinion that the transactions showed various irregularities with regard to the contracts. They refused to exonerate the committee from blame, though not prepared to criticise their action too severely. The court held that it was *prima facie* wrong for a committee to give any contract to one of its members or its secretary, and they considered that the persons above mentioned had made an unwarrantable use of their positions as members of the British Empire Committee to obtain money from a contractor.

At the beginning of August a correspondence was published between Sir Edward Grey and the American Ambassador in London on the subject of prize-court proceedings in cases where American interests were involved. In this correspondence the United States Government disputed the validity in International Law of the Order in Council by virtue of which we had undertaken to prevent goods from either leaving Germany or entering it. It regarded its illegality as "plainly illustrated," when American-owned goods manufactured in Germany were forbidden to pass from the neutral port of Rotterdam to the United States. Further as a logical corollary it declined to recognise the validity of proceedings instituted in our prize courts under the provisions of the order. In reply Sir Edward Grey mentioned the fact that there were neutral ports adjacent to Germany that were neutral only in name, and were doing a thriving trade as collecting and forwarding agents for the enemy's imports and exports. To maintain that goods of enemy origin or destination merely because they pass through these neutral ports ought therefore to be immune from seizure would be in effect to say that Germany could never be blockaded at all. Sir Edward Grey reminded the United States Government that they themselves during the Civil War had been faced by a similar emergency, and had been compelled to expand the current practices of International Law in order to meet it. He said that we had used the Order in Council as leniently as possible, and with the utmost care not to impede genuinely neutral trade. Finally he offered them the arbitration of an international tribunal in cases where the decisions of our

prize courts were contested by the United States. The British answer was on the whole well received in America.

On August 4 meetings were held in many different parts of the country to celebrate the inauguration of the second year of war. A large patriotic meeting was held at the London Opera House, at which Lord Crewe was in the chair and Mr. Balfour the chief speaker. Mr. Balfour dwelt upon the greatness of the service of the British Fleet, which afforded protection not only to ourselves but to every other nation. He declared that we were determined to see the war through to the end, and that this determination was shared by every part of the British Empire and by every one of our allies. After twelve months of war the resolve of the nation and of the Empire was not only unshaken, but their confidence in the ultimate result was even more sure than it had been in the early days of this titanic struggle. He moved a resolution recording this inflexible determination, and the resolution was seconded by Sir Robert Borden who declared that the Dominions were inspired by a similar determination to do their part.

The inauguration of the second year of the war was celebrated also by a service at St. Paul's Cathedral which was attended by the King and Queen. Services of Intercession took place throughout the country, and the Archbishop of York, preaching at Hull, exhorted men to come forward as recruits instead of shirking at home.

On the same day a meeting was held by the Manchester City Council, which passed a resolution by 26 votes to 20 calling for a national declaration that cotton be declared contraband of war. A week later a public meeting took place at the Queen's Hall to advocate the same purpose. A resolution proposed by Sir Charles Macara and seconded by Sir William Ramsay expressed the opinion of the meeting that the cause of the allies would be best secured by an immediate declaration of cotton as contraband of war. The effect of this campaign in the country was seen on August 21, when a *communiqué* was issued by the Foreign Office stating that cotton had been declared absolute contraband. The *communiqué* added that measures would be taken to relieve as far as possible any abnormal depression which might temporarily disturb the market. The French Government issued simultaneously a similar proclamation.

When the Reichstag was opened in Germany on August 19 the Chancellor took occasion to discuss the origin of the war and attack the policy of England before the war (v. History of Germany). The Chancellor described the effort which had been made some years before the war for the purpose of securing the neutrality of England in the event of a general conflagration, and he traversed the account of the facts which had been given by Mr. Asquith in his speech at Cardiff on October 2, 1914. Sir

Edward Grey replied to the Chancellor's speech in a letter addressed to the newspapers on August 25. He denied that there existed any convention or agreement between the British and Belgian Governments, and referred to the "infamous proposal" for English neutrality made by the Chancellor on July 29, 1914. The reason why the negotiations of 1912 for an Anglo-German agreement broke down was that it became clear that Germany wished to retain her freedom to wage war, while binding us to absolute neutrality. Sir Edward Grey characterised as "ridiculous" and "untrue" the Chancellor's insinuation that he had told the German Ambassador in London that we were going to war in the interest of Germany and with the object of restraining Russia. He urged that Germany was in reality fighting for supremacy and tribute; as for the freedom of the seas which had been demanded by the German Chancellor, he regarded it as a very reasonable subject for discussion and agreement between the nations after the war, but only when taken in conjunction with the further question of freedom from German methods by land. So long as the Germans aimed at conquest and an indemnity, we and the allies should continue to fight for the right to live in real freedom and safety. He undertook that an account should be issued of the negotiations which had taken place in 1912. In fulfilment of this promise a statement was shortly afterwards issued by the Foreign Office, based upon the records of the agreement and bearing out the contentions of Sir Edward Grey. The controversy was subsequently carried on by the *North German Gazette*.

At the end of August the question of maintaining the production of food was brought before the attention of the country. Lord Selborne, soon after he went to the Board of Agriculture, had appointed a committee of technical experts and practical agriculturists, under the chairmanship of Lord Milner, to report on the means of maintaining and increasing food productions in England and Wales; similar committees had likewise been appointed both for Scotland and for Ireland. The English committee made the recommendation that farmers should be encouraged to grow more wheat by a guaranteed minimum price of 45s. a quarter for the four years following the harvest of 1916. This recommendation was also discussed by the Scottish committee, but rejected; and the Government, after consideration, also decided to reject it. The Irish committee was under the chairmanship of Mr. T. W. Russell, and a minority report was issued by Sir Horace Plunkett, who considered that the question of co-operative agriculture had been unduly neglected by the majority. Lord Selborne, addressing a meeting of farmers at the end of August, explained the reason of the Government for rejecting the recommendation of the English committee. He said that the Navy had now succeeded in dealing with the

submarine menace, so that no danger need be apprehended as regards food supply in the immediate future. He added also that the area under wheat had already been largely increased. Since 1913 half a million acres had been added, which was equivalent to 30 per cent.; at the same time the live stock in cattle and sheep had also increased. This was the immediate effect of a rise of prices. He stated also that very large crops were reported from Canada and Australia, a fact which was not known to the English committee when it presented its report. Yet another reason which inspired the Government in rejecting the committee's recommendation was the dearth of labour, and the necessity of finding men in still greater numbers for the Army. Lord Selborne then outlined a plan which had been adopted for the organisation and co-operation of food production, the principal feature of the system being the utilisation of the county councils as a medium between the Board of Agriculture and the farmers. By this scheme it was hoped to remedy the lack of labour and other difficulties which confronted farmers.

About this date the transference of the control of the Royal ordnance factories from the Army Council to the Ministry of Munitions was realised. This transference had been provided for by the Order in Council under which the Ministry of Munitions had been first established.

The coal-miners in South Wales at the end of August were still in a somewhat unsettled condition, and it was found necessary once again to invoke the assistance of the Government in settling their disputes. The difference turned upon the date at which should commence the rate of pay decided upon in the agreement which had been reached in July. After conferences with Mr. Lloyd George, Mr. Runciman and Mr. Henderson, a settlement was attained on August 31 under which the owners agreed to pay the "bonus turn" as from July 22 to enginemmen, pumpmen, mechanical staff, stokers and banksmen who performed work on afternoon and night shifts, but had not been included in the July agreement. The men's representatives unanimously undertook to recommend to the workmen the acceptance of this concession by the owners, and it appeared that a final settlement of the labour troubles in South Wales had at length been reached.

Throughout the recess the campaigns for and against compulsory service had been conducted in the newspapers more vigorously than ever, discussion being stimulated by the taking of the national register in the middle of the month. Two committees were appointed by the Government for the consideration of the matter; one, under the chairmanship of Lord Crewe, was to go into the whole question of compulsory service; while the other, over which Lord Lansdowne presided, was to deal with problems arising out of the taking of the national register, such, for instance, as the consideration of what trades should be excluded from recruiting in future.

The most important public declaration which had yet been made on the subject of conscription was in the form of a resolution which was unanimously adopted by the Trades Union Congress meeting at Bristol on September 7. The resolution which was moved by Mr. Seddon, as chairman of the Parliamentary Committee, ran as follows:—

“That we, the delegates to this congress, representing nearly three million organised workers, record our hearty appreciation of the magnificent response made to the call of volunteers to fight against the tyranny of militarism.

“We emphatically protest against the sinister efforts of a section of the reactionary Press in formulating newspaper policies for party purposes, and attempting to foist on this country conscription which always proves a burden to the workers and will divide the nation at a time when absolute unanimity is essential.

“No reliable evidence has been produced to show that the voluntary system of enlistment is not adequate to meet all the Empire’s requirements.

“We believe that all the men necessary can and will be obtained through a voluntary system, properly organised, and we heartily support and will give every aid to the Government in their present efforts to secure the men necessary to prosecute the war to a successful issue.”

One speaker after another, representing many different kinds of labour, rose to express the general dislike of conscription which was entertained among the working classes. Attacks were made upon the “Northcliffe” Press and the alleged machinations of capitalist junkers in England. The view was expressed that the function of Britain during the war was not to provide a large Army, but to hold the seas, finance the allies, and make munitions; it was argued further that the introduction of compulsory service would destroy the unity of the nation. Mr. Smillie advocated a pure and simple declaration against conscription, even if it were thought necessary by the Government; and said that if the congress passed the resolution, it would be the duty of organised labour to take measures for preventing conscription. Great enthusiasm was aroused by the passage of the resolution, copies of which were sent to the Prime Minister, Mr. Lloyd George and Lord Kitchener. At the same time an invitation was issued to Mr. Lloyd George to come down to Bristol and address the congress.

This invitation he accepted, and delivered an important speech on September 9. In reply to the statement that the Government had not kept their promise to intercept war profits, he said that the State had taken control of practically the whole of the engineering works in the country and appropriated the profit they made out of the war for the purposes of the State. He claimed that the Government had completely carried out the bargain which they

made with the representatives of the trade unions at the Treasury conference some time previously, and he commented on the failure of labour in too many instances to carry out its share of the bargain. He named cases from Woolwich Arsenal, from South Wales and from Birmingham in which local branches of trade unions had placed obstacles in the way of an increased production of guns, shells and rifles. Semi-skilled men were prevented from doing work hitherto done by fully qualified mechanics; lathes were not permitted to be handled by the unskilled; objection was raised to the erection of munitions machinery by a textile mill-wright. The employees of one of the largest tool-making firms in the country vetoed the engagement of women to work lathes, and declared that if it were insisted upon they knew how to protect their rights. "This is a war of material," said Mr. Lloyd George, "the German advance in Russia is a victory of German trade unionism; inadequate material means defeat; we are making prodigious efforts to increase our war material in order to give our gallant men fair-play. We have set up sixteen national arsenals, we are constructing eleven more, we require 80,000 more skilled men and 200,000 unskilled; this country at the present moment is not doing its utmost. Fifteen per cent. of the machines for turning out rifles, cannon and shells are not working at night. We cannot equip our armies in time unless organised labour is prepared to assist. If the attitude of the Woolwich engineers is to be adhered to, we are making straight for disaster; the Government might just as well abandon their programme, the programme which is essential to victory."

Mr. Lloyd George went on to cite evidence from Enfield, Woolwich and Coventry to show that trade-union restrictions were being rigidly maintained in spite of the undertaking that they would be suspended. The lives of workmen who tried to do their best were made miserable, and even Belgian workmen had been warned not to work too strenuously. "This sort of thing ought to be dropped," he said; "if the Russians have been driven back they will come again, but until they are ready the burden falls on this country. Let us maintain it in a way which is worthy of our tradition. You are the leaders of organised labour; the responsibility is yours. I beg you do not set the sympathy of the country against labour by holding back its might with the fetters of regulation and custom; I beg of you—cut them, let us be one people and we shall march through to the greatest triumph that labour has yet achieved."

The speech exercised a great effect on the congress. The only other resolution of importance that was passed was one expressing approval of the national recruiting campaign. A few days later Mr. Lloyd George issued a shilling volume of his war speeches under the title "Through Terror to Triumph." To this volume he supplied a preface which excited considerable attention. The

need was impressed for making efforts still greater than those which had hitherto been made, and the nation was exhorted not to hesitate when the need was clear to take the necessary steps to call forth its manhood to defend its honour and existence.

About this time there was considerable unrest also among the railwaymen. An effort was made by a certain section to induce the National Union of Railwaymen to determine what was called the "truce." This was an agreement made in 1914 between the National Union of Railwaymen, the Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen, and the Railway Companies, that the conciliation boards and all existing contracts and conditions of service should remain in operation subject to six weeks' notice; whereupon the "parties hereto shall agree as to the arrangements to be adopted for the future." There had been many indications of unrest among railwaymen; and the central executive of the National Union of Railwaymen were now called upon to consider what Mr. J. H. Thomas, M.P., called "such a demand as they never had before" for an improvement in the conditions of employees. After some time a meeting was arranged between the executive council and the railway companies at which certain extensions of wages were granted; and for the time being the trouble was successfully tided over.

CHAPTER IV.

EVENTS OF THE AUTUMN.

PARLIAMENT re-assembled on September 14. It was plain that the question of National Service was uppermost in the minds of members of the House of Commons; for on the opening day there was little discussion about anything else. Mr. Asquith, in reply to Captain Guest, refused to name a day for the discussion of the subject, and also expressed his opinion that it could not be satisfactorily dealt with by the method of deputation. Mr. Dillon stated his strong opposition to the proposal, unless an overwhelming case should be made out for it; he criticised the action of certain officers who had published in *The Times* a manifesto in favour of compulsory service. Mr. Asquith, after begging officers who were members of Parliament to bear in mind their special responsibilities, and to remember that they did not sit in the House as representatives of the Army, would say no more than that compulsory service was a matter which "had not escaped the attention of the Government"; and he promised that when the Government "without undue delay" had arrived at their conclusions, they would present them to the House where they would become the subject of parliamentary discussion.

In the House of Lords, Lord Parmoor asked on whose authority it was determined whether an application should be made for the

hearing of a criminal charge under the Defence of the Realm Acts *in camera*. He pointed out that the liberties of the people depended upon criminal proceedings being heard in public. The Lord Chancellor replied that secrecy was on the application of the prosecution and was determined only by a decision of the court; but neither Lord Parmoor nor Lord Courtney were satisfied with this reply.

On the following day Lord Kitchener made a statement in the House of Lords on the military position. After giving a short account of the operations in the various theatres of war, he said that the use by the Germans of liquid fire and asphyxiating gases had lost much of its offensive value, owing to the steps which had been taken to counteract their effects. Referring to the considerable reinforcements, amounting to eleven divisions, which had been sent out from the new armies, he said that they had enabled Sir John French to take over approximately seventeen miles of additional front. He paid a warm tribute to the fighting qualities of the Russian soldier, and added that the Russian Army still remained intact as a fighting force. The Germans appeared "almost to have shot their last bolt" on the Eastern front. While they had prevailed by sheer weight of guns and at an immense cost to themselves, they had gained nothing but barren territory and empty fortresses; their strategy had clearly failed, and the victories they claimed might only prove to be defeats in disguise. With regard to the operations in the Gallipoli peninsula, he declared that there was now abundant evidence of a process of demoralisation among the German-led "or rather German-driven" Turks, due to their extremely heavy losses and to the increasing failure of their resources.

Turning to the subject of recruiting he told the House that provision for the maintenance of the forces in the field during 1916 had caused him anxious thought, owing to the recent falling off in the numbers coming forward to enlist. A large addition to the number of recruits would be needed, and he hoped for an early solution of the problem as to how an adequate supply might be secured.

On the same day (Sept. 15) in the House of Commons, the Prime Minister asked for a further vote of credit of 250,000,000*l.* to cover the war expenditure from that date up to the middle of November. This was the seventh vote of credit proposed since the outbreak of the war, the seven together providing a sum of 1,262,000,000*l.* The tendency of the daily cost of the war was upwards. From April 1 to the end of June the average daily expenditure had been 2,700,000*l.*; from July 1 to July 17 it was 3,000,000*l.*; and from July 18 to September 11 it was rather over 3,500,000*l.* That, said Mr. Asquith, might be taken as the average daily net expenditure necessary at the present time to carry on the war. The main cause of the increase was the growth in

the advances to Allies; and the cost of the Army had increased, largely on account of the greater expenditure upon munitions. On the other hand the rate of expenditure upon the Navy was showing a decline. Mr. Asquith estimated that the weekly average gross war expenditure until the middle of November would not exceed 35,000,000*l*.

Dealing with the subject of recruiting, the Prime Minister stated that by way of the Army and the Navy from first to last not far short of 3,000,000 men had offered themselves to the country. Recruiting on the whole during the last thirteen months had kept up to a fairly steady figure; but during the last few weeks it had shown signs of falling off. Though the casualties for the year had been over 380,000, rapid recovery from wounds reduced the wastage considerably below that figure. The large financial advances by Great Britain to the Allies and the work of the Ministry of Munitions had to be taken into consideration in estimating the British share of the common burden. Mr. Asquith on the whole took a favourable view of the military situation, and repeated that the Allies intended to arm themselves better than the Germans, and fortify themselves to endure the hardships of war longer. There had no doubt been some mistakes and miscalculations, but this was not a moment for recrimination. Mr. Asquith finally appealed once more for domestic unity and concentration.

A strong criticism of the Government then came from Mr. Amery, who said that the men sent out were in many cases quite unfit for the hardships of a campaign, and who advocated compulsory service as a remedy for the mistakes that had been made. He urged that the consideration of this proposal should not be deferred until it was too late. Mr. Amery's plea was endorsed by Captain Guest, Sir Alfred Mond, Sir Leo Chiozza Money and others; and was opposed by Mr. Dillon and Mr. S. Walsh, the miner member. The attitude taken up by the opponents of the proposal was that, before adopting it, unassailable evidence must be offered of its necessity. The only other subject discussed was that of the aerial defence of London. Mr. Balfour pointed out the difference between Paris and London in this respect. Paris was a great military fortress whereas London was not a fortified town; he added, however, that the defence organisation under Sir Percy Scott was now complete. The vote of credit was then agreed to.

The report stage was taken next day and again gave rise to a debate on compulsory service. Colonel Arthur Lee pointed out that we were at present occupying not more than one-seventh of the Western front. He commented on the extravagances and injustices of the present system, the virtue of which had now been exhausted. He insisted on the moral effect in the field, and in the markets in which the Allies' hoped to negotiate a loan, if compulsory service were adopted. If the war continued it

would have to be adopted, and he urged that no time should be lost in making the necessary preparation.

The main opposition to compulsory service came from Mr. J. H. Thomas, representing the opinions of the railwaymen of the country. He asserted that the trade unionists were absolutely against compulsory service, and he suggested that the movement was designed to "shelve" the Prime Minister. He foreshadowed industrial disquiet in the coming winter and even spoke of possible revolution. Nearly every branch of his organisation had not only passed resolutions against conscription, but had indicated to the executive committee that on its introduction they would stop work. Mr. Duke urged that the House should postpone further discussion until the Government had completed their deliberations on the subject. He deprecated the speech of Mr. Thomas, and in common with other members questioned his account of working-class opinion.

In the House of Lords it was announced by Lord Crewe that agreement had been reached in regard to the Naval and Military War Pensions Bill. This Bill, which had been suspended by the House for further consideration, was thereupon read a second time.

On September 21 the Chancellor of the Exchequer introduced in the House of Commons the third war budget. He said the revised estimates for the current year put the revenue on the basis of existing taxation at 272,110,000*l.* and the expenditure at 1,590,000,000*l.*; and the dead weight of debt at the close of the year would be 2,200,000,000*l.*, including advances to our Allies which would be repaid. "There is no record," said Mr. McKenna, "of a nation having voluntarily accepted liabilities bearing so high a proportion to the total national income for which provision is to be made within a single year." He then went on to describe the measures which were to be taken to provide 107,000,000*l.* by new taxation. The income tax was to be increased by 40 per cent.; the exemption limit was to be reduced from 160*l.* to 130*l.*, and the abatements from 160*l.* to 120*l.* and from 150*l.* and 120*l.* to 100*l.* The Assessment under Schedule B was to be taken as the rent paid instead of as one-third. The income tax was to be paid in half-yearly instalments on January 1 and July 1 by persons liable to direct assessment, and in quarterly instalments by employees of all descriptions. The supertax scales applicable to incomes above 8,000*l.* were to be revised; the tax of 2*s.* 8*d.* would henceforth be 2*s.* 10*d.* upon incomes between 8,000*l.* and 9,000*l.*; 3*s.* 2*d.* upon incomes between 9,000*l.* and 10,000*l.*; and 3*s.* 6*d.* on the surplus of incomes above 10,000*l.* This revision was estimated to produce 2,150,000*l.* during the present year and 2,685,000*l.* in a full effective year. While the man with 2*l.* 15*s.* a week and no children would pay 12*s.* 1*d.* a quarter income tax, and the man with 3*l.* a week and no children would pay 18*s.* 11*d.* a quarter, the

man with 5,000*l.* a year would pay 1,029*l.* ; the man with 10,000*l.* a year, 2,529*l.* ; the man with 20,000*l.* a year, 6,029*l.* ; and the man with 100,000*l.* a year, 34,029*l.*

Mr. McKenna then described a new excess profits tax to be paid upon profits which exceeded by 100*l.* the profits shown by the income-tax assessment for 1914-15. The amount of the tax was to be 50 per cent. of the surplus and was expected to yield 30,000,000*l.* in a full effective year and 6,000,000*l.* before March 31 next. Taking all the items of new taxation together under the head of Inland Revenue, it was estimated that the total additional revenue for the current year would be 19,424,000*l.*, and in a full effective year 77,085,000*l.* The Chancellor of the Exchequer then passed to new taxes under the head of customs and excise; the duty upon sugar was to be increased from 1*s.* 10*d.* a cwt. to 9*s.* 4*d.* a cwt., but owing to a reduction of the price to the refiners on the part of the Royal Commission on Sugar Supplies this would not raise the price to the consumers by more than 5*s.* a cwt. or a $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per lb. The increased tax would add 5,360,000*l.* to the revenue of the current year, and 11,700,000*l.* to the revenue of a full effective year. Tea, tobacco, cocoa, coffee, chicory and dried fruits were to pay 50 per cent. more in duties; tea bringing 4,500,000*l.* more to a full year's revenue, tobacco 5,100,000*l.* more, cocoa, coffee and chicory 290,000*l.* more and dried fruits 180,000*l.* more. The duty on motor spirits was to be raised by 3*d.* a gallon, bringing in 550,000*l.* during the present year and 1,100,000*l.* in a full year, the product of the tax being retained in the Exchequer and not paid over to the Road Board. The patent medicine duty was to be doubled, adding to the revenue 250,000*l.*

Mr. McKenna then came to articles the import of which might be restricted on the grounds of the effect upon foreign exchange of the consumption of luxuries. Imported motor cars, motor cycles, cinema films, clocks, watches, musical instruments, plate glass and hats were to pay an *ad valorem* duty of 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent., from which a revenue of 1,950,000*l.* was expected in a full year. The total additional customs and excise revenue for the present year was expected to be 11,500,000*l.*, and in a full year 25,070,000*l.* Adding the yield on the new inland revenue taxation—77,085,000*l.*—Mr. McKenna's total new taxation amounted to 102,155,000*l.* In addition to this sum, alterations in the postal, telegraph and telephone charges were to bring in a further 4,975,000*l.*; the half-penny post was to be abolished, a 9*d.* telegram was to take the place of the 6*d.* telegram, and press telegraph charges were to be increased so as to make that service self-supporting.

The national balance sheet for the year was as follows:—

REVENUE.

| | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---------------------|
| On existing basis of taxation - | - | - | - | - | £272,110,000 |
| New taxation - | - | - | - | - | 30,924,000 |
| Revenue from postal changes - | - | - | - | - | 1,980,000 |
| Total - | - | - | - | - | <u>£305,014,000</u> |

EXPENDITURE.

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|
| Navy - | - | - | - | - | £190,000,000 |
| Army - | - | - | - | - | 715,000,000 |
| External advances - | - | - | - | - | 423,000,000 |
| Pre- and post-moratorium bills - | - | - | - | - | 36,000,000 |
| Ordinary national services - | - | - | - | - | 170,000,000 |
| Food supplies, minor items and contingencies - | - | - | - | - | 56,000,000 |
| Total - | - | - | - | - | <u>£1,590,000,000</u> |
| Estimated deficit - | - | - | - | - | £1,285,000,000 |
| Estimated dead weight debt - | - | - | - | - | 2,200,000,000 |

There was little serious criticism on this gigantic budget. Mr. Lawrence Hardy regretted that no proposal had been made to withdraw the salaries of members of Parliament; Mr. Dundas White was disappointed because the taxation of land values had not even been mentioned; Sir William Byles declared that it was an error to suppose that the service of press telegrams was not already self-supporting; and Mr. T. M. Healy welcomed the budget as marking the death of Free Trade.

The debate was resumed on September 23, when Mr. Barnes, speaking on behalf of the Labour party, expressed regret that so little money was being raised by taxation and so much by loan. Our burdens at home, he said, had been insignificant and we had not yet felt the war; the working classes—at least the mechanics—were earning wages that were unprecedented. Mr. Samuel Roberts pointed out that the product of the new taxation would be more than double the sum required to pay for the additional debt services. Sir Joseph Walton declared that, although he himself was a strong free trader, he was prepared to see all our economic and fiscal theories for the time being put on one side. Sir Alfred Mond, formerly treasurer of the Free Trade Union, on the other hand, reproached Mr. McKenna and Sir John Simon with having deserted the cause of free trade. He asked whether the proposals were a kind of joke on the part of Mr. McKenna to make the tariff reform members of the Cabinet ridiculous. The Motor Retailers' Association had represented already that the tax on imported motor-cars would affect 16,000,000% of British capital and throw 30,000 persons out of employment.

Mr. McKenna repeated that the import duties did not compromise any fiscal principle. Replying to criticism of the omission of intoxicants from the list of articles the taxation on which had been increased, he urged that the rate of tax on spirits was higher than on any other article of consumption, and as regards beer the

trade had not yet recovered from the heavy imposition of duty it suffered last year. He pointed out further that strong measures were being taken in other directions to curtail the consumption of beer and spirits. Finally he congratulated the country upon the incalculable moral effect of the extraordinary unanimity and even enthusiasm which the Budget had commanded.

On the report of the Budget resolutions on September 29, Mr. Lough urged that the importation of sugar should be allowed, seeing that there was no longer a danger that any would come from enemy countries. The Chancellor of the Exchequer denied that prices had risen to the extent suggested, and said that the closing of the ports had secured that in the world's market there should be only one buyer of sugar for this country.

The chief interest of the debate however lay in the attempt to revive the old question of Free Trade and Tariff Reform. Mr. Lough accused the Free Traders in the Government of having betrayed the principles of Free Trade: his criticism having reference to the proposed duties on imported luxuries such as motor-cars. Both the Chancellor of the Exchequer as a Free Trader and Mr. Bonar Law as a Tariff Reformer appealed to the House to accept the proposal in the spirit in which it was made. Mr. McKenna protested his fidelity to Free Trade and assured his critics that the import duty on luxuries was designed purely to adjust the balance of International Exchange and to effect domestic economies. Mr. Bonar Law said that he was no longer interested in the old fiscal question, which like many other domestic controversies was overshadowed by the war. These speeches however did not appease Sir Alfred Mond, who insisted upon the protective character of the proposed duties. The Chancellor of the Exchequer then agreed to exclude motor tyres from the tax, as also commercial cars and cars used by doctors or for ambulance purposes. He pressed the House to decide the question that evening, but was ultimately obliged to accede to reiterated appeals from Free Trade members for an adjournment till the following day. When the debate was renewed on the last day of September, the dissentient members insisted upon taking a division, and the resolution was carried by 174 votes against 8. The only other incidents of importance were the abandonment of the hat tax and the plate-glass tax.

Discussion in the House of Commons during the last week of September ranged over a great variety of subjects which were brought up on the second reading of the Consolidated Fund (No. 4) Bill, and other pretexts. On September 22 Mr. Runciman dealt with the question of food prices. The Board of Trade, he said, began to deal with the matter a week after war broke out and had been dealing with it ever since. The price of wheat, owing to the increased supply, had fallen considerably since the spring. There was no evidence that there had been any holding

up of grain or flour-stocks or any food-stuff. An unprecedented consumption of beef by our own Army and the Armies of France and Italy had increased its price; but the Board had very substantially cut down the prices asked by the American beef companies, and the freights demanded by the shipping companies. The Board had supplied our own Army and the French Army with beef, and had had a considerable surplus to sell for the benefit of the civil community. In the course of twelve months the Board would have bought and sold beef to the value of 50,000,000*l.*; and the French Government had entrusted it with the whole conduct of the negotiations for the supply of beef to the French Army. The prices of food in this country had increased by 34 per cent., whereas in Germany they had increased by 70 per cent.

Sir Henry Dalziel on the same day invited the Prime Minister to furnish some justification or explanation with regard to the Dardanelles expedition; and he was joined by Sir Arthur Markham in condemning "the persistent policy of secrecy with regard to the Dardanelles." He pointed out that American newspapers coming into this country contained official German war news which was not allowed to appear in the British newspapers. In reply to these charges the Home Secretary stated that the parts of the so-called German war news which were not published here, were representations which the Germans drew up in order to influence neutrals; and it was not to be expected that our newspapers should become the advertisement agents of Germany.

On September 23 the Government suffered a defeat in the House of Lords, where the Naval and Military War Pensions Bill was dealt with in committee. Lord Devonport moved an amendment that the Statutory Committee appointed to administer the Bill should be nominated and controlled by the State and supported out of State funds, instead of being based upon the Royal Patriotic Fund Corporation. The supporters of the amendment urged that the effect of the Bill as it stood would be to dam the stream of private benevolence; and they represented that only a body under State control should be charged with the administration of public money. Notwithstanding Lord Lansdowne's opposition to the amendment, it was carried by 35 votes to 26; and other amendments were also made before the Bill passed through committee.

At this time it began to appear probable that Bulgaria might before long enter the war, and on September 28 Sir Edward Grey made a statement in the House for the purpose of warning the Bulgarian people. He said that there had always been in this country a warm feeling of sympathy with the Bulgarians, and accordingly there could be no disturbance of friendly relations on the part of Great Britain. But if Bulgaria assumed an aggressive attitude on the side of the enemies of this country, we should give

our friends in the Balkans all the support in our power in a manner that would be most welcome to them in concert with our Allies "without reserve and without qualification." The British policy in regard to the Balkan States had been to secure to each of them, by agreement, independence based on the union of kindred nationalities; the policy of Germany was to use the Balkan States by encouraging dissension among them to serve her own interests from Berlin to Bagdad.

After this statement, discussion in the House turned once again to the subject of compulsory service. Captain Guest, who was supported by Mr. Amery and other members, insisted that the country would have to supply seventy divisions in the field within the next twelve months and that under the voluntary system we were nearly a million men short of the legitimate demands upon us. Mr. J. A. Pease and Mr. Chaplin urged that, in deference to the Prime Minister and the Government, the matter should not be pressed further. The debate then dropped, and on the following day the House agreed to adjourn until October 12.

Meanwhile *The Times* and other newspapers had been carrying on a campaign for a smaller Cabinet on the ground that the existing Cabinet was too unwieldy to deal promptly and effectively with the various emergencies of war. The idea gradually gained favour among politicians, and at the end of September the Prime Minister determined that the immediate task of carrying on the war should be discharged by an inner committee including about half the regular members of the Cabinet. About the same time the problem of recruiting appeared again to be becoming urgent. On September 28 there was a joint conference of the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress, the Executive Committee of the General Federation of Trade Unions, the Executive Committee of the Labour Party, and Members of the Parliamentary Labour Party. The meeting took place at the Board of Education with Mr. Arthur Henderson in the chair. It was addressed by Lord Kitchener and the Prime Minister, and although the proceedings were private it was understood that a statement had been made as to the necessities of the military situation. At another meeting two days later the conference declared its belief that the number of men required for the Navy, Army, and munitions works in order to carry on the war successfully could be obtained by voluntary means. It pledged itself, moreover, to assist the Government in every possible way to secure the requisite number of men, and decided to organise a special labour-recruiting campaign throughout the country. The committee subsequently issued a manifesto appealing for 30,000 recruits a week.

On October 11 Lord Derby, on the invitation of the War Office, assumed the direction of recruiting. The scheme on which he

proposed to work was announced by him on October 21 when he described it as "the last effort on behalf of voluntary service." A personal canvass was to be conducted throughout the country of every man between the ages of eighteen and forty with the assistance of the information obtained by the National Register. The forms filled up by men of these ages had been copied off on to the so-called "pink forms" for the convenience of canvassers. A certain number of men whose present employments were of greater use to the country than their services as soldiers (chiefly munition workers) had been starred and were to be excluded from the canvass. Men were divided into forty-six groups, the unmarried men in the first twenty-three groups according to their ages from eighteen to forty, and the married men in twenty-three more groups, beginning when the unmarried groups were exhausted. Men who were induced to enlist would not necessarily be called upon for service at once; the intention being to call up the groups in turn according as they were required. In addition to the canvass a personal letter was addressed by Lord Derby to all eligible men, and the campaign was initiated by a letter addressed by the King to his people in which he called upon men of all classes to come forward voluntarily and take their share in the fight. These measures at once caused a great boom in recruiting; and it began to appear more probable that compulsory service would be avoided.

On October 6 the House of Lords met to deal with the third reading of the Naval and Military War Pensions Bill. The Bill was passed, but it was understood that the Government reserved to itself in view of the reconstitution of the Bill the right to propose an entirely new scheme. The most interesting business of the House, however, arose out of questions which Lord Cromer addressed to the Government with regard to the wholesale massacres of Armenians by the Turks. Lord Crewe stated that the massacres had been upon a very large scale, but there was no official confirmation of the reports that German consular officials had been privy to them. The Turkish Government was in possession of the views of this country upon the matter, though no recent communication had been made by the British Government to Constantinople directly or indirectly. Lord Bryce put the number of Armenians who had been slaughtered since the beginning of the war at 800,000; and he urged upon neutral nations the duty of diplomatic action with a view to saving the remnant of the Armenian people.

In the second week of October another party of wounded British prisoners arrived at Tilbury in exchange for Germans. The party consisted of about 125 men, many being privates of the Royal Army Medical Corps.

The House of Commons resumed its sittings on October 12. Sir Edwin Cornwall asked the Prime Minister as to the composition of the Cabinet War Committee, and was informed that

it consisted of eleven or twelve Cabinet Ministers who were subject to the ultimate responsibility of the Cabinet. Sir Edward Grey announced that the Government intended forthwith to declare contraband cotton piece-goods and other cotton products capable of being used in the manufacture of explosives. The Postmaster-General stated that the Government had decided to abandon the idea of discarding the halfpenny postage, and to make the increases in the Press telegraph rates much smaller than was originally intended. The Chancellor of the Exchequer then introduced the American Loan Bill in which he sought the authority of Parliament to raise a loan in America in conjunction with the French Government of \$500,000,000. The term of the loan was for five years and the rate of interest 5 per cent. The issued price to the public was 98, but the whole amount had been taken by an underwriting syndicate at 96. Explaining the high interest at which the loan had been made, Mr. McKenna remarked that capital generally earned higher interest in the United States than in this country. It had been argued that, as no income tax would be paid to this country on the interest, we were borrowing 7 per cent.; but by this loan we were retaining in the country 50,000,000*l.* which we owed on the trade balance to the United States and we were getting income tax upon that. The sending of a commission to America had not been the first step taken in the matter of the loan. The measure had been preceded by inquiries in this country beginning early in June, and only after it had been proved to be impossible to raise an American loan from London was the commission sent to New York. The Bill then passed at once through all its stages.

On October 13 the Home Secretary introduced the Clubs (Temporary Provisions) Bill, which though it ostensibly affected all clubs was intended in practice to control and regulate only what were known as "night clubs." It was alleged that young officers were induced to enter these clubs, which were in consequence detrimental to the efficiency of the Army. The Bill provided that all clubs in scheduled areas were to be closed by a certain time at night, not earlier than the hour at which restaurants were required to close; and the police or the military authorities were to have a right of entry for the purpose of enforcing the law. Offenders would be liable to imprisonment, and convicted clubs might be struck off the register. Power was given to the police to withhold the registration of new clubs. The second reading of the Bill was taken on October 21, but at no time did it excite much discussion.

Questions of finance still continued to occupy the attention of the House, and on the second reading of the Finance (No. 3) Bill Mr. Lough urged that the excess-profits tax should be abandoned, and the income tax doubled if necessary in respect to excess profits. Mr. Snowden contended that the Government

was relying too much on borrowing and too little on taxation to meet the current cost of the war. He complained of the incidence of the income tax, and said that the Government would not correct a state of affairs in which it was possible for ladies' handkerchiefs to be offered for sale in a Bond Street shop at 20*l.* per half dozen, and a man with an income of 100,000*l.* a year was allowed to retain 68,000*l.* for himself. Other criticisms came from Sir George Younger and Sir Alfred Mond, the latter particularly with reference to the new import duties. Mr. Montagu, Financial Secretary to the Treasury, then caused a considerable stir in the House by declaring that every citizen in the country would have to be prepared to place at the disposal of the State at least one-half of his income, either in taxation or in loans. Every one, he added, would have to stint themselves in regard to the consumption of commodities; the expenditure upon luxuries at present was extravagant. At the close of the debate Mr. McKenna undertook to meet the bankers with regard to the assessment of their incomes for income tax. Replying to the charge of extravagance on the part of the war departments, he reminded the House that the war expenditure was not under the control of the Treasury, but he claimed that those departments were doing all that was possible to avoid extravagance. When the Bill was passing through Committee, several amendments were moved by Mr. Snowden, Mr. Taylor and others, but were negatived by very large majorities after short discussion.

The Budget resolutions in connexion with the postal rates were not embodied in the Finance Bill, but formed the basis of a separate Bill called the Postal and Telegraph Rates (Statutory Limits) Bill. The second reading of this Bill was taken on October 14 and the Committee stage on the 21st, after short discussion. On October 14 statements were made in both Houses of Parliament with regard to the new situation created in the Balkans by the entry of Bulgaria into the war. In the House of Commons Sir Edward Grey stated that the Allies had desired that the Balkan States should be kept out of the war, but after the entrance of Turkey they worked for a Balkan Agreement founded upon mutual concessions. The Allies had been ready to do all in their power to secure concessions for Bulgaria, but to obtain the consent of Serbia and Greece to the concessions it was an essential preliminary that Bulgaria should take the side of the Allies against Turkey. Unfortunately there were acute divisions among the Balkan States; and the Central Powers had been able to offer Bulgaria more than the Allies could offer her. But the promises which Germany and Austria had made to Bulgaria must have been made to her at the expense of her neighbours without any corresponding advantage to them. The Allies had remained in friendly relations with Roumania which had shown a readiness to promote their policy. Since Bulgaria had joined the Central Powers, the

interest of Greece and Serbia had become one, and in the long run these two countries would stand or fall together. It was through Greek territory alone that direct assistance could be given to Serbia by the Allies; and such French and British troops as were available had accordingly been landed at Salonika with the help of Greece. The co-operation of Russian troops had been promised so soon as they could be made available. He could not disclose the military plans, but they would be based on the principles of sound strategy. The struggle was one, and the issue would be one, wherever the decisive theatre of war might be.

In deference to the request of the Prime Minister, no discussion took place in the House of Commons on this statement. But in the House of Lords, where a similar statement was made at the same time by Lord Crewe, some debate took place. The Earl of Morley pointed out that the landing in Salonika involved a new set of military operations, and it might prove, he said, to be an extremely momentous event. He warned the Allies against the danger of dissipating and dispersing their forces, and he expressed a wish that the Government had found it possible to inform the country of the number of the Allied forces to be used in this new campaign, of the terms of Russian co-operation and of Italian co-operation, and also of the prospects of the adhesion of Greece and Roumania.

After a complaint by Lord Devonport of the repression of criticism, Lord Milner said that the whole country was asking what was going to be done about the Dardanelles. There was no time to be lost in deciding upon a policy; one compensation of the Balkans difficulty might be that it would give the Government an opportunity of withdrawing from the Dardanelles. He did not believe that any harm could be done by frankly stating the situation even in a public speech, when the speaker held no official position either in Government or in Opposition. Lord Lansdowne in reply declared that it was out of the question that Ministers should pronounce on the spot as to the suggestion that they should abandon the Gallipoli Peninsula. He urged that it would be improper and unpatriotic to press the Government further for explanations of the statement which Lord Crewe had made.

Lord Midleton then suggested a secret session of the House for the discussion of the question raised by Lord Milner; but Lord Crewe replied that opinion generally was against secret sessions of Parliament. Lord Ribblesdale said that Ministers in suppressing debate were only putting off the evil day, for the important questions which were being asked would have to be answered in the long run.

Sir Edward Grey's enunciation of the policy of the Government in the Balkans led to the resignation by Sir Edward Carson of his office as Attorney-General, and with it of his seat in the

Cabinet. Speaking in the House of Commons on October 20, Sir Edward, who was received with loud cheers, said that there had been no disagreement as to the obligation of carrying on the war to a successful conclusion, and he denied that difference of opinion as to methods was an element of national disunion. There had been no discussions in the Cabinet of questions which divided the nation before the war. He had had no personal differences with his colleagues in the Cabinet, and he cordially acknowledged the unvarying courtesy of the Prime Minister. The difficulties involved by the necessity of co-operation and co-ordination of our Allies were admitted in the speech, and so were the commitments resulting from the Gallipoli Campaign which Sir Edward had found in progress when he joined the Cabinet. He said however that he had found himself unable to agree with the policy, as he understood it, announced by Sir Edward Grey in the House of Commons with regard to the new Balkans question. The new theatre of war in the Balkans had created a situation which could not be divorced from the position on the Gallipoli Peninsula. "That situation with all its obligations necessitated in my opinion a clearly defined, well-thought-out and decisive policy on the part of His Majesty's Government; and finding myself unable to agree in any respect with what I understand was laid down as the policy approved by His Majesty's Government, I felt that my presence in the Cabinet could not be of any use in the critical situation in which we were involved."

The failure to make any material progress in the Gallipoli Peninsula had unquestionably caused widespread disappointment throughout the country, especially on account of the high hopes with which that expedition had been launched. Many influential persons feared that the new expedition to Salonika might result merely in a repetition of the stalemate which had apparently become established at the Dardanelles. Although strong pressure was exercised by the Government to prevent discussion or criticism in the House of Commons, the House of Lords still retained some share of its normal freedom; and on October 26, Lord Loreburn succeeded in raising a debate in the course of which important information was divulged. He asked whether the despatch of troops to Salonika had had the approval of the highest naval and military advisers of the Government, and whether provision had been made for the communications of the force and for its supplies of men and material, to the satisfaction of the professional experts. Lord Loreburn was succeeded by Lord Cromer, who complained of "the veil of impenetrable mystery" which the Government had thrown over their policies and plans. He complained also that Lord Kitchener had not found time to come to the House to make a statement in a debate which every one had expected—though he added that Lord Kitchener's former statements had never contained much more

than the public had already read in the newspapers. Without wishing to upset the Government, the public wished to see substituted for the Cabinet of twenty-two—a number quite incapable of conducting a war properly—a small, strong, executive body chosen from men representing the best talent in the country.

Lord Lansdowne, replying first on the latter point, said he agreed that the efficiency of any body was apt to vary inversely with its numerical strength. Replying to Lord Loreburn he declared that amateur strategists in the Government had not imposed any plans of strategy which they might have had upon the professional advisers of the day. But whether an operation should be undertaken at all, or whether one operation was preferable to another, or whether as the war went on it was desirable to modify the plans originally arrived at, were all questions to be considered not only from a purely military and naval point of view, but from the point of view of broad moral and political considerations with which they were bound up.

Lord Lansdowne interpreted the Balkans operations of the Central Powers as an effort to seek a more favourable decision for themselves than appeared to be possible at the moment in the other theatres of war. "Serbia," he said, "made a direct appeal to us for help; but it was not only Serbia that invoked our co-operation; the good-will of Greece was obviously of the first importance to us, and we had at that time every reason to feel assured that we had that good-will. It was at the instance of M. Venezelos that we undertook to provide forces to enable Greece to fulfil her treaty obligations to Serbia." The British Government had sent to Salonika the small force which was available, namely 13,000 men, and the French had despatched a force which was then engaged with the Bulgarians on the eastern frontier of Serbia. The Government were preparing a larger force for service in South-Eastern Europe, and transports had been engaged to take it to its destination. These measures had been taken after full consultation with the naval and military advisers of the Cabinet. The small force landed was a precursor of the larger force, but the use to which the larger force would be put when it arrived would depend on the situation at that time. The change of attitude on the part of the Greek Government had made a serious difference; moreover he regretted to say that it was highly improbable that the Serbian Army would be able to withstand for any great length of time the attack of the Austro-German forces. The Allies were of one mind in the matter; and when their reinforcements reached the Eastern Mediterranean, the military and naval advisers of the French and British Governments would take stock of the situation, and a conclusion would be come to as to the wisest use to which the troops could be put.

On the same day in the House of Commons, Sir Edward

Grey admitted that the Government had offered to give Cyprus to Greece if Greece would support Serbia against Bulgaria. As the condition had not been fulfilled the offer had lapsed.

The recent Zeppelin raids upon London [*v.* History of the War] gave rise to debates and questions in both Houses. So far as the public at large were concerned the chief methods adopted for meeting this danger consisted in a darkening of the streets at night to such an extent as seriously to interfere with the ordinary traffic. Guns had been mounted in various parts of London; and the bursting of the shells, which was plainly visible to the public, often seemed to take place at some distance from their objective. In the House of Lords on October 20 Lord Portsmouth suggested that the public should be warned of the approach of Zeppelins, and Lord Sydenham considered that the lighting of London had been reduced too much. The Duke of Devonshire, Civil Lord of the Admiralty, stated that the aerial defence of London was in the hands of the Admiralty. A public warning of the approach of Zeppelins would probably attract people into the streets, and so increase the probability of casualties. The departments concerned attached great value to the reduction of London lighting.

On the following day the same subject was discussed in the House of Commons. Mr. Balfour stated that the military authorities had permission to fire on hostile aircraft in the event of such aircraft coming over an area in which it would be more convenient to attack them by military than by naval fire. The authorities did not consider that adequate defence against night attacks by Zeppelins could be provided by aeroplanes. Later in the sitting Sir John Simon deprecated the suggestion of warning the public of the approach of Zeppelins, on the ground that the invader might be guided by the ringing of bells or blowing of hooters. Moreover a warning would bring people into the streets and so increase the danger.

The resignation of Sir Edward Carson accentuated the general uneasiness as to the conduct of the war, and the secrecy which was carefully preserved by the Government. The demand for more explicit information at last became so pressing that the Government were no longer able to withstand it; and on October 27 Mr. Lloyd George announced that Mr. Asquith, who was temporarily indisposed, would make a statement on the progress of the war and furnish an opportunity for debate on the following Tuesday, November 2. The promised statement was anticipated in all parts of the House with the greatest eagerness; and when the House met, the benches were crowded with members, while Lord Fisher and other peers were sitting in the peers' gallery. Before Mr. Asquith rose to make his statement the Speaker informed the House that he had received from M. Cambon, the French Ambassador, a telegram sent by the Com-

mittee of Foreign Affairs in France to the House of Commons expressing their grief and indignation on the execution of Miss Cavell [*v. History of Belgium*].

Mr. Asquith, after referring to the great work of the Navy and to the expansion which had taken place in the Army, passed to the operations in the Dardanelles. He admitted that the Government had taken great risks in the Dardanelles for great objects. Some doubt and hesitation had existed in the mind of Lord Fisher as to the naval attack; but the plan was conceived with the aid of the Admiral on the spot, the French Admiralty entirely approved of it, it was enthusiastically acclaimed by the Grand Duke Nicholas, and the Government felt justified in sanctioning it. The attack at that time was purely a naval operation, and the responsibility for it rested not on any one Minister but on himself and the Government as a whole. Mr. Asquith then described the military expedition which had been expected to convert the failure of the naval operations into a success. That too had failed: "in the whole course of the war I have never sustained a keener disappointment." Our troops were still holding up 200,000 Turks on the Gallipoli Peninsula, but the position there was being anxiously considered in view of the whole Near Eastern situation.

Turning to the new theatre of war in the Balkans, Mr. Asquith had once more to confess "disappointment and failure." Germany, he said, had the advantage of unity of direction in diplomacy, while the four Allies had had to consult at every step. There had been the strongest reason to believe up to the last moment, that Greece would act upon her Treaty obligations to Serbia. When on September 21, after the Bulgarian mobilisation had begun, M. Venezelos asked France and Great Britain for 150,000 men, it was on the express understanding that Greece would mobilise also. On October 2 M. Venezelos agreed to the actual landing of French and British troops; and on October 4 he announced the landing in the Greek Chamber, and urged that Greece must abide by her treaty with Serbia. The next day King Constantine repudiated this declaration and M. Venezelos resigned. The new Government then declined to recognise that a *casus fœderis* had arisen between Greece and Serbia. Thus Serbia had been left to bear the brunt of the invasion of the Germans and Austrians and the side attack by Bulgaria. "We here in the United Kingdom," continued Mr. Asquith,— "and it is the view of our French and Russian Allies as well,—we cannot allow Serbia to be the prey of this sinister and nefarious combination." Co-operation between the Allies in this new field of war would be "close, cordial and in full concert." "Serbia may be assured that her independence is regarded by us as one of the essential objects of the war."

Mr. Asquith then passed to the financial situation and em-

phasised the necessity of strict economy both for the State and people. "We shall all have to make far greater sacrifices than ever we have made before." Dealing next with the question of compulsory military service, he said that the difference between voluntarists and compulsionists was purely one of expediency; and though he believed Lord Derby's scheme would be a success, yet if it failed to bring in men of military age and capacity who ought to serve in the Army in sufficient numbers, he would "without the faintest hesitation or doubt" come to the House of Commons and recommend some form of legal obligation. He agreed that the married men ought not to be called upon for the Army until the unmarried men had joined—"if necessary by legal measures." Mr. Asquith expressed no intention of reducing the size of the Cabinet. He stated his belief that there was no "mechanical specific against want of foresight or want of good luck"; but he intimated that in future the Government would commit the strategic conduct of the war to a committee of not less than three and not more than five members, having elastic relations with the Cabinet. Finally he declared that he did not intend to shift the burden of his office to any other shoulders until he was satisfied that he could no longer bear it. His health was good, he had the confidence of the King and the country, and he was resolved to go on.

The debate on Mr. Asquith's speech was opened by Sir Edward Carson who had taken his seat beside Mr. Chaplin on the front Opposition bench. He said, that after so many admitted miscalculations, the country wished to see that our resources now were being used to the best advantage. The Dardanelles operations hung round our neck like a mill-stone, and they had brought upon us the most vital disaster that had happened in the course of the war. Yet the Cabinet had not been able to make up their minds whether to proceed with the operations or to withdraw our men and so save the suffering and loss which went on with absolutely no hope of any result. He had never seen the military staff at the Cabinet until the last few weeks; the staff, he said, should not be a scratch lot—they should be the very ablest men we could get as expert advisers of the Cabinet. Sir Edward did not think that Mr. Asquith's small War Committee would be a great improvement on the existing system. The whole question was one of concentrating responsibility and that could only be attained by the reduction of the Cabinet itself to five or six members.

Sir Edward Carson indicated that the Cabinet had arrived at no plan, and had made no preparations to fulfil Sir Edward Grey's pledge given in the House of Commons on September 28 (*q.v.*); and he announced that the Prime Minister had given his permission to publish his letter of resignation which would appear in the next day's newspapers. Thereupon the House demanded to

hear the letter at once, and Sir Edward Carson read it. It expressed his opinion that the policy of the Cabinet involved the desertion of Serbia, and urged that Greece should be compelled to fulfil her treaty obligations, and that we should make Greece afraid of us by threatening to break off friendly relations unless she carried out her pledge to Serbia.

Mr. John Redmond spoke next, and complained of the want of recognition by the military authorities of the magnificent achievements of the Irish troops. He declared that the Irish race throughout the world was with the Allies in this war, and would regard a premature peace as a betrayal both of the living and the dead. Sir Edward Grey then replied to Sir Edward Carson's charges against the Government, of making dilatory preparations for the assistance of Serbia. He denied that there had been any delay after it had become known that Greece would not abide by her treaty.

While this discussion was taking place in the House of Commons, the House of Lords was discussing the amendments which the Commons had made to their own amendments to the Naval and Military War Pensions Bill. The House of Commons had declined to agree to most of the amendments inserted by the Lords, and the House of Lords now determined not to insist upon them. The Bill shortly afterwards passed into law.

At the beginning of November the question of the Censorship again occupied the attention of the country. On October 30, Lord Milner, speaking at Canterbury, denounced the policy of concealing the truth about the war. "Truth all round is the most fortifying thing in the world," and we could not brace our nerves and steel our hearts to win through by imitating the ostrich. It was only by frankly recognising unfavourable facts that we could derive some encouragement from the really favourable elements in the situation. On November 3 the same subject was discussed in the House of Lords, and Lord Morley said that secrecy was creating anxiety both at home and in the Colonies. He asked the Government to lay on the table of both Houses papers referring to the Dardanelles operations, to enable Parliament to take further steps if necessary. Public opinion might be fallible, but it was not half so fallible as individual opinion, and in any case the Government had to lean upon it; how could they do that unless public opinion had full, free, and correct information as to facts? After other speeches the debate was adjourned to November 8.

On November 6, however, the vitality of the Censorship was exhibited by the suppression of the *Globe* newspaper. Lord Kitchener had just left England on his expedition to the Eastern Mediterranean; the *Globe* affirmed that he had placed his resignation of the office of War Minister in the hands of the King and that it had been refused. This allegation was denied by the Press

Bureau, but it was immediately repeated by the *Globe*; and that newspaper was promptly suppressed by the military authorities.

Little reference was made to this action in the resumed debate on the censorship in the House of Lords. Lord Loreburn made a very strong appeal for a fuller publication of news; and Lord Milner also dismissed the Lord Chancellor's defence of the Press Bureau as an inadequate reply to Lord Morley's criticisms. He declared that British war news had been constantly "doctored" in an optimistic sense, and that he had many times been pained to hear from officers at the front that on the whole the German official reports of the engagements were more accurate than the British. The defence of the Press censorship was then undertaken by Lord Curzon, who said that Ministers were in communication with the military authorities at the front with the object of seeing that in the military censorship of news other points of view were kept in mind besides the purely military—the effect of information upon public opinion at home, its value in consoling the relatives of those who were engaged in battle, and its influence upon recruiting. The debate closed with a speech from Lord Lansdowne in which he frankly admitted that the Government had been unfortunate in the matter of the General Staff—created as one of the results of the Boer War.

On the following day (Nov. 9) Mr. Asquith at the Guildhall banquet defended the suppression of the *Globe* on the ground that it had "invented and circulated a lie." "To talk of the freedom of the Press in such a connexion is to be guilty of a ridiculous travesty of a noble watchword." On November 11 the subject was raised in the House of Commons by Mr. Hogge. The Home Secretary again defended the action against the *Globe*, and said that if that newspaper wished to have the case tried in a civil court in public, it was open to the proprietors to bring an action against the police for trespass and conversion. Sir John Simon indicated that if the owners of the *Globe* showed a proper appreciation of their offence it would affect the period of suspension. On November 22, after a suppression of a fortnight, the *Globe* once again resumed publication, after making an ample apology for its behaviour and a complete retraction of the offending statements.

On November 11 the Prime Minister moved the adjournment of the House of Commons to enable members to discuss the vote of credit which he proposed to move the following day. The vote he said would be for 400,000,000*l.*, which at the rate of 5,000,000*l.* a day—an outside estimate of expenditure—would enable the Government to carry on operations without another vote until the middle of February. Mr. Asquith gave some information as to the measures which were being taken to ensure public economy. A Cabinet committee which had considered the subject of economy in every branch of the public service had recommended a

closer examination of contract prices, the revision of the scale of army rations, and the return to civil life of men found unfit for service in the Army; and action had already been taken in all these directions. Referring to the need for co-ordination on the part of the Allies of their several plans of campaign, Mr. Asquith said that the Government recognised that our own general staff should be strengthened, and that there should be a more intimate inter-communication between our military and naval advisers and those of the other Allies. Before long there would be a common war council in which he hoped that Russia and Italy would co-operate.

Mr. Roch then criticised the initiation of the Dardanelles campaign, and asked whether it was true that we had no adequate maps of Gallipoli, and also why there was so little hospital provision for the wounded, and how the Government accounted for the high rate of sickness. Further criticism from a different point of view came from Lieutenant-Commander J. C. Wedgwood. During this debate no Cabinet Ministers were present in the House, and at length as a protest against this absence the House proceeded unexpectedly to adjourn.

On the following day, November 11, the Prime Minister apologised to the House for the neglect of Ministers, and undertook that it should not occur again. He then made the important announcement of the composition of the new War Committee of the Cabinet. During the absence of Lord Kitchener, he said, the committee would consist of five members:—*viz.* himself (temporarily acting as Secretary for War), the First Lord of the Admiralty, the Minister of Munitions, the Secretary for the Colonies and the Chancellor of the Exchequer. A debate then ensued on the air service, in the course of which Mr. Balfour deprecated the assumption that the Germans had a lead over us in aircraft. He admitted that our organisation for defence against air attack was not perfect, but there was no division of policy or authority.

Late in the evening Sir Edward Grey explained to a small House the steps taken by the Government to assist Serbia. When the opportunity arose of co-operating with Greece in defending Serbia from the Bulgarian attack, the Government agreed to join with the French in sending 150,000 men to Salonika; they at once sent the men available and made preparation for sending the rest of the promised force. When it became clear that Greece would not co-operate, the Allies had to consider whether they could and should go on with the troops they had promised, and they decided to proceed. No time had been lost in the actual preparations. The vote of credit for 400,000,000*l.* was then granted and the House adjourned.

Mr. Asquith's announcement of the composition of the new War Council caused Mr. Churchill to resign his office of Chancellor

of the Duchy of Lancaster, and temporarily abandon politics. In a letter addressed to Mr. Asquith, on November 11, he said that he was unable to accept a position of general responsibility for war policy if he had no effective share in its guidance and control. He added that he felt unable in times like the present to remain in well-paid inactivity; and he intended therefore, since he was an officer, to place himself unreservedly at the disposal of the military authorities. On November 15 he explained to the House of Commons the causes of his resignation, and reviewed the share which he had taken in the earlier part of the war. After justifying his action with regard to the naval battle off Coronel and the three cruisers lost in the North Sea, Mr. Churchill came to the subject of Antwerp. He said that the project to aid in the defence of Antwerp had gone a long way before he was informed that it was in some suspense owing to the fact that the Belgian Government had intimated their decision to evacuate the town. He had then offered to go to Antwerp and ascertain the situation on the spot, and his colleagues had agreed.

In Antwerp he consulted with the Belgian Government and the British Staff Officers, and he telegraphed to London a proposal that, the Belgians continuing the defence of Antwerp to the utmost limit of their power, the British and French Governments should say definitely within three days whether they could send a relieving force; if they could not, the British were to send troops to ensure the safe retirement of the Belgian field army, meanwhile encouraging the defence by sending naval guns and a naval brigade to Antwerp. Both Governments agreed that a relieving army should be sent; and he was authorised to do everything possible to maintain the defence until it arrived. The decision to send a naval brigade from England to Antwerp was taken at his desire; it was not his fault that the measures to help Antwerp were taken too late; he had warned Mr. Asquith, Lord Kitchener and Sir Edward Grey a month before of the danger, but there had been no action upon his proposals.

Mr. Churchill then passed to the Dardanelles operations, and affirmed that this enterprise had been framed entirely by expert and technical minds. Russia had asked us to adopt some action to relieve Turkish pressure in the Caucasus, and Mr. Churchill had called Lord Fisher's attention to the possibility of naval measures in Turkish waters. In November, 1914, he had also made an offer to Lord Kitchener to congregate transports to carry 40,000 troops to attack the Gallipoli Peninsula; but no army was available, and if one had been he gathered that it would not have been so employed. The naval bombardment was approved by expert opinion on the spot and at home, and Lord Fisher did not at this stage express any opinion against the specific operation. "At no time did I receive from Lord Fisher any criticism of the definite attack proposed." "I did not receive from the First Sea

Lord either the clear guidance before the event or the firm support after the event to which I was entitled." If Lord Fisher had expressed disapproval at the War Council, the operations would never have been begun. The attack upon the Dardanelles was a legitimate war gamble for stakes which we could afford to lose. Our army in Gallipoli had stood all the summer within a few miles of a decisive victory;—such an advance as that at Neuve Chapelle would have decided the whole operations, decided the attitude of the Balkans, cut Germany from the East and saved Serbia. "Take Constantinople," had been his advice to the Government, "take it by ships or take it by soldiers, but take it, take it soon, take it while time remains."

Mr. Asquith, while admitting that Mr. Churchill's speech had not given him unqualified satisfaction, paid a warm tribute to his late colleague who soon after left the House. Subsequently Mr. Tennant gave a detailed defence of the preparations for the Gallipoli campaign. Mr. Churchill left England two days later, and it was understood that he had been attached to the Grenadier Guards in the rank of Major.

The charge brought against Lord Fisher by Mr. Churchill was answered by the ex-Sea-Lord on November 16 in one of the shortest speeches ever made in the House of Lords. It was as follows: "I ask leave of your Lordships to make a statement. Certain references were made to me in a speech delivered yesterday by Mr. Churchill. I have been sixty-one years in the service of my country and I leave my record in the hands of my countrymen. The Prime Minister said yesterday that Mr. Churchill had said one or two things which he had better not have said, and that he had necessarily and naturally left unsaid some things which will have to be said. I am content to wait; it is unfitting to make personal explanations affecting national interests when my country is in the midst of a great war."

At the same meeting of the House of Lords, Lord St. Davids made some very severe animadversions on the British Headquarters Staff and the Army and Divisional Staffs in France, exempting, however, the staff of the Guards division and the staff of Sir Douglas Haig. There was, he said, not a good word to be said for the Headquarters staff—men had been appointed to it because of their rank, their social position, their money; some for no other reason than that they could "tip" the winner in a horse-race. Ladies had been and still were visiting the British Headquarters. At one of the headquarters offices the clerks had failed to attend until 10.30 in the morning, because they had been playing bridge until late the night before.

These sensational charges were immediately answered by Lord Haldane, who declared that the real Headquarters staff—the military staff—was as competent a staff as a man could wish to see, the best trained officers we had turned out in the last ten

years. He described an ordinary day (6 A.M. to 11 P.M.) in the life of Sir John French, and expressed scepticism about the lady visitors and the bridge parties. Lord Sydenham, however, was not completely satisfied. He said that he could not resist the suspicion that the Head-quarters staff was responsible for the failure to press the attacks upon Loos and Neuve Chapelle to victory of the first class, and he urged that the lessons of the last fifteen months should be enforced firmly upon the responsible officers in the field.

Meanwhile the recruiting campaign in the country assumed proportions more strenuous than any that had yet been reached since the beginning of the war. Lord Derby's scheme was in full operation; his letter of appeal had been despatched to every eligible man in the country, and canvassers were visiting all who seemed suitable for service, according to the information disclosed in the national register. On November 2 Mr. Asquith had stated in the House of Commons that in his opinion the obligation of the married men to enlist ought not to be enforced or held to be binding upon them unless and until the unmarried men had been dealt with. This statement was immediately construed as a pledge to married men under which they might be induced to enlist under the Derby scheme with the probability of not being called up for a long time to come. About the middle of November a further statement by Mr. Asquith raised some doubts as to whether the construction placed upon his previous statement was accurate, and for a few days a set-back in the rate of recruiting occurred. Mr. Asquith being at the time in France, a more definite repetition of the pledge was given by Lord Derby, who said that it was understood that the married men should not be called out until the great majority of the unmarried men had enlisted, and if a great majority did not enlist compulsory methods would be used. In the House of Commons on November 16 Mr. Bonar Law, in the absence of the Prime Minister, described his own position in the controversy about compulsory service. He said that he believed there was a better system than the voluntary system, but it could only be gained at too high a price, *viz.*, the price of national unity. Mr. Asquith had the strongest antipathy to any compulsory system, but he was responsible for winning the war; and if Lord Derby's scheme failed other schemes would have to be tried. There was no intention on the part of the Government to adopt compulsion on the ground merely that every recruitable unmarried man had not enlisted voluntarily; but if there were a general shrinking on the part of that class, then the unmarried would be compelled to go before the married men with families were called upon. It would be something to look back upon with pride if we won the war under a voluntary system.

The subject was again discussed on November 18 in both Houses. Lord Lansdowne declined to name a minimum per-

tage of unmarried men which the Government would regard as constituting the success of the Derby scheme. As November wore on, it became clear that the canvassing for recruits would not be completed by the end of the month, and the date for the conclusion of the scheme was postponed till December 12. On November 24 Lord Derby addressed a large gathering of members of the Stock Exchange; he said that recruiting was not proceeding with sufficient rapidity and urged the country to come forward in still greater numbers than they had yet done.

On November 22 the Chancellor of the Exchequer called attention to a new scheme for attracting to the service of the State the savings of working-men. He said that the scale of scrip vouchers and scrip certificates of small denominations in the War Loan had brought in only 5,000,000*l.*; a result which had disappointed the Government. It was now proposed to issue bonds in multiples of 1*l.* carrying after the first six months 5 per cent. interest per annum. These bonds would be cashable at their face value; for the first six months they would not carry any interest. As a result of this arrangement the bonds would carry 2½ per cent. the first year and 5 per cent. in every year thereafter.

Mr. McKenna added that he proposed to appoint a strong committee to report on the scheme, and the best method of popularising it. Extravagant expenditure could not be tolerated in any class at present; the nation must be made to understand that economy in expenditure was vitally necessary.

The question of educating children on the merits of the war was raised by Lord Sydenham in the House of Lords on November 23. He said he thought it would not be difficult to draw up a war curriculum for the elementary schools without encouraging German militarism in this country. The Archbishop of Canterbury stated that much had already been done in this direction; most of the men teachers had joined the Army and the boys were being taught to draw maps of the theatres of war and to appreciate the motives behind not only this war but the wars of the past as well.

Lord Selborne, replying for the Board of Education, said that the causes of the war were being most thoroughly explained to the school children all over the land. The Minister for Education realised that it was the duty of the Board to stimulate the local authorities to teach the duties of citizenship, and he meant by these words all that was implied in the word patriotism. Lord Selborne added for himself that he did not think the country had done well hitherto to leave this matter to the local authorities, and he hoped that some day the Education Office itself would undertake the teaching of sane patriotism in the schools.

Since the collapse of the Government's drink proposals after Easter but little had been heard of the evils which had been so loudly proclaimed towards the beginning of the year. Neverthe-

less restrictions were from time to time imposed, which were said to have had a great effect in diminishing drunkenness. One of the most important of these restrictions in London was that which prohibited "treating"; and on November 29 a drastic reduction in the hours for the sale of alcohol came into force in all clubs, restaurants and public-houses throughout greater London. The hours of sale were limited to five and a half on week days, *viz.*, from noon to 2.30 P.M., and from 6.30 to 9.30 P.M. On Sundays the hours were from 1 to 3 and 6 to 9 P.M. The innovation was received with considerable dissatisfaction by the trade unions, and some threatening speeches were made which however led to no action.

The reference in Mr. Churchill's speech to his appointment of "well-paid idleness" led to some difficulty in finding a successor to him as Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. At length the office was accepted by Mr. Herbert Samuel, who at the same time joined the Cabinet. He did not receive any salary, however, from his new appointment, and retained his office as Postmaster General.

On November 25 Mr. Long, the President of the Local Government Board, introduced into the House of Commons the Increase of Rent and Mortgage Interest (War Restrictions) Bill. The object of this measure was to prevent the owners of small dwelling-houses from taking advantage of the economic effect of war to exploit the country for their own benefit. It provided that in regard to London and in regard to boroughs and urban districts in England and Wales with a population of over 100,000, and in regard to areas in which there had been an exceptional influx in population owing to the war, an Order in Council might be made to the effect that, after the making of the Order, any increases should be irrecoverable upon the pre-war rentals of houses let at 30% a year or less in London and 21% a year or less outside London. The Bill applied also to Scotland and Ireland with certain variations, and it included proposals to prevent the increase of mortgage interest and the operation of the right of foreclosure. At the second reading of the Bill the population limit in respect of the areas to which it was to be applied was withdrawn; subsequently the resort to Orders in Council was also abandoned, and the Bill made applicable to small house rents and mortgages which had been raised since the war in all parts of the country; shortly afterwards the Bill was passed into law.

Since the formation of the Coalition Government there had been no official Opposition in the country, but from various newspapers there constantly came criticisms of the actions of the Government. A controversy of somewhat acrid character arose at the end of November between Sir John Simon, the Home Secretary, and *The Times* newspaper. In reply to a question in

the House Sir John Simon had given the impression that a paragraph had been published in a Russian newspaper alleging that the Allied cause in the Near East had been prejudiced by the contents of Lord Northcliffe's newspapers, and that the Germans had made wide use of such contents for their own propaganda in the Balkans. *The Times* immediately pointed out that the paragraph in question had been telegraphed from Paris, and did not profess to represent Russian opinion. Sir John Simon expressed his regret for the false impression to which he had given currency; but *The Times* was far from satisfied, and on the last day of November a debate on the whole subject took place in the House of Commons. Sir John Simon stated that Lord Northcliffe in his different papers had made charges and insinuations against him, which were entirely fabricated and groundless. He then proceeded to make a counter-attack upon the so-called Northcliffe Press, which in various quarters had aroused great animosity by the line which it had taken in the criticism of Ministers and in the advocacy of compulsory service. He drew attention to a map which had been published in the *Daily Mail* on October 11, which was entitled "The Road to India," and which exhibited a railway running from Berlin through Vienna to Constantinople and Asia, marked at intervals by finger-posts labelled "to Suez and India." He stated that any one in the East into whose hands this map should fall would draw the inference that the British Navy was weaker than the German, that it could not even bar the mouth of the Thames or hold the British Channel, and that on land the Germans were advancing victoriously against their enemies. He went on to affirm that a reproduction of this map had been published in a well-known German newspaper for the purpose of distributing German influence in any quarter which it could reach. Such a map was a most dangerous instrument in the hands of German propagandists, who in fact were distributing it gratis in neutral countries. Sir John Simon then went on to take another instance from *The Times* in which he held that improper allegations had been made by that newspaper.

The defence of *The Times* was undertaken by Mr. McNeill, who said that the foreign newspapers, which had quoted from *The Times* and the *Daily Mail*, had perverted the sense in which the English newspapers had written. It was notorious, he said, that those two journals had led the agitation which had resulted in the institution of the Ministry of Munitions, and the provision of adequate munitions for the Allies; and that *The Times* had received the congratulations of M. Sazanoff and the Russian Emperor upon its aid to the Allied cause.

Lord Robert Cecil subsequently contributed to the debate, and expressed his preference for having no Press censorship rather than continuing the present state of affairs. He thought that responsibility for the contents of the newspaper should be left to

the editor, and after some further discussion, this unpleasant personal dispute came to an end.

An important debate on the use of sea-power took place in the House of Lords on December 1. Lord Portsmouth inquired whether the adoption of the Declaration of London by Order in Council involved the creation of an international tribunal. He charged the Foreign Office with having harassed the British Fleet for the benefit of our enemies and declared that, if it was true that the Foreign Office had arranged to allow Denmark to carry goods to Germany, it was "a monstrous piece of treachery."

Lord Lansdowne replied that the Government's adoption "in part" of the Declaration of London had had in view solely the convenience of this country. The Declaration of London did not involve the creation of an international tribunal; it was not even an international code and had no international validity; it was dead as an instrument of national obligation, but with certain important modifications, it was valuable for the purpose for which it was now used, *viz.* as a convenient principle for the guidance of our Prize Courts and the Prize Courts of our Allies. Lord Lansdowne emphasised the fact that the adoption was only partial, and that the Declaration now used for our own commerce was very different from the Declaration of 1911. At the end of the debate Lord Crewe dealt with the practical difficulty of drawing up an absolute list of contraband articles, which he submitted we were entitled to ask neutrals to consider.

The general question of the blockade of Germany was raised on the following day on a motion for the adjournment of the House of Commons, when Sir Henry Dalziel called the attention of the Foreign Office to the export of goods to neutral countries in relation to its bearings upon the imports of Germany. He quoted the figures of our linseed-oil export to Holland in the first nine months of 1913, 1914 and 1915, showing that it had increased in the present year by over 29,000 tons; and he suggested that there had been a greatly increased export from Holland to Germany. He asked for an independent inquiry into the good faith of the Dutch distributing agency, the Overseas Trust, to which our exports were consigned, and inquired once again whether the Government were satisfied that the Trust had not intimate relations with German commercial undertakings.

In reply Lord Robert Cecil stated that there had been practically no exportation of linseed-oil to Holland since June. The Government recognised that the whole question was of the utmost gravity, and it was complicated by our dependence upon Holland for margarine. But apart from that, no more commodities were being sent to Holland than were reasonable in view of her imports from this country in the years from 1911 to 1913; and the books of Dutch margarine factories were being periodically examined by representatives of the British Government. Lord Robert claimed

that the Government were securing these three objects—the withholding of our fats and oils from Germany, the provision of margarine for our own people, and respect for the rights of Holland as a neutral State. He had no reason to suspect the good faith of the Overseas Trust. Finally Lord Robert declared his belief that our success in stopping exports from leaving Germany had been very great. If exports ceased, so would imports; and though there was no chance of starving Germany, we could deprive her of necessary supplies.

Meanwhile a certain amount of industrial discontent still existed throughout the country, and on December 1 a great conference of organised labour in the Central Hall, Westminster, was addressed by the Prime Minister, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the President of the Board of Trade. Mr. Asquith impressed upon the meeting that it was absolutely necessary to make the largest possible proportion of the national resources available for the conduct of the war and the maintenance of our export trade. He said that about 4,500,000 working people had obtained since the war a rise on the average of about 3s. 6d. a week on the rate of wages as distinct from their total earnings, and he asked the leaders of the wage-earning classes of the country to use their influence to prevent anything in the nature of a general demand for an advance in wages.

Mr. McKenna, who was at first received somewhat critically, pointed out that it was contrary to the interests of the State to put forward further demands for higher wages in particular trades at the present time. The demand for higher wages came mainly from trades engaged in manufacturing goods for the State. The State could only pay more for the goods by borrowing or by a general increase of taxation. Was it right to increase the price indefinitely by an indefinite demand for increased wages? Very large wages had been earned in many cases, and half the trouble would never have arisen if these wages had not been lavishly spent. Excess profits were to be taxed 50 per cent.; the Government asked the wage-earners to give up 50 per cent. on their excess earnings in exchange for war loan.

Mr. McKenna was followed by Mr. Runciman who said that the fixing of maximum prices for food would have prevented the necessary supplies coming to these islands. The Conference was then concluded without the expression of any specific opinion.

The death of Mr. Keir Hardy [*v. Obit.*] caused a vacancy in the Parliamentary representation of Merthyr Boroughs, and the contest which took place in that constituency attracted much attention throughout the country. The two candidates were both representatives of Labour. Mr. Winstone was the official candidate of the Labour party, while Mr. Stanton stood as an independent Labour candidate as a protest against the anti-recruiting and pacifist policy of the Independent Labour party of which Mr. Winstone was a

member. Contrary to the general expectation, Mr. Stanton was elected by a majority of 4,206 ; the result being taken to indicate the extreme desire on the part of the country to prosecute the war with the utmost possible vigour. Another indication, if any were wanted, of the same fact was in the wrecking of a peace meeting in London organised by the Union of Democratic Control on November 29.

The news of the advance of General Townshend upon Bagdad had given rise to high hopes of success in at least one sphere of the land war. The announcement of his retreat was a corresponding source of disappointment, and led to a debate in the House of Lords on December 7, when Lord Bryce suggested that the revolt of the *gendarmes* in Persia had been organised by Prince Reuss, a member of one of the most famous houses in Germany. Lord Crewe denied that the force under General Townshend had been too small for its task. The early capture of Bagdad, he said, would have been a great stroke both from a military and a political point of view ; the leading of the troops and their behaviour were above criticism, but the work had proved to be heavier than had been expected owing to the superior forces of the enemy and their powerful armament of artillery.

On December 8 an important question was asked by Mr. Snowden in the House of Commons ; he desired to be assured that no proposals for peace negotiations based upon the evacuation of conquered territory should be rejected by the Government without reference to Parliament. Mr. Asquith replied that the five Allied Powers had agreed not to conclude peace separately ; it would however be the desire of the Government to take Parliament into its confidence at the earliest possible moment after the making of any serious proposals for peace.

For some time past the question had been agitated as to the desirability of holding a general election. The Parliament Act of 1911 had reduced the duration of a single Parliament to five years ; and at the end of January, 1916, that period would expire. Yet it was generally considered that it would be extremely inconvenient to hold a general election in the middle of the war. Not only would it be expensive, not only would it have to be fought on an old register, not only were many of the electors absent on military service, but as all official opposition had been suppressed it was certain that the new distribution of seats would be almost identical with the old. In order therefore to avoid the necessity for a general election, the Parliament and Registration Bill was introduced by the Home Secretary on December 9. The Bill proposed to add a year to the existing quinquennial period, by dropping the year 1915 completely out of the reckoning ; the power of the Crown to dissolve Parliament was not affected by the Bill. By providing that the sittings of Parliament in 1916 should be regarded as successive to the session of 1914, the Bill would keep

alive for the purposes of the Parliament Act the Plural Voting Bill, which had passed twice through the House of Commons. The Government contemplated the preparation of special registers to ensure that voters returning from the front would not lose their votes at the next general election. Mr. Pollock strongly opposed the Bill on the ground that it revived the Plural Voting Bill. It was, however, read a first time without a division.

The second reading was taken on December 14 and disclosed considerable opposition in the House of Commons. The rejection of the Bill was moved by Mr. Cowan, who expressed disappointment with the Coalition Government. The motion was seconded by Mr. Amery who advocated an early general election as a means of imparting new life to the House of Commons and infusing new vigour into the conduct of the war.

The reply of the Government was made by Mr. Bonar Law; he said that a general election at present was unthinkable, and after a warm insistence upon the patriotism of the Unionist Opposition in the first stages of the war, he went on to account for the revival of the Plural Voting Bill by the measure under discussion. The revival represented a compromise which was his own proposal, but the Plural Voting Bill could not be carried during the war, and he did not believe that it could be carried after the war in the present Parliament. The compromise kept alive the rights of the Liberal party in the Bill and that was all. He declared that, though circumstances might arise in which he would find it necessary to leave the Government, he could not leave it upon a party issue. But if he had lost the confidence of his party he would be of no further use to the Government.

After this appeal the Unionists no longer pressed for a division upon the resolution. Mr. Duke expressed the loyalty of the Unionist party to Mr. Bonar Law, but recommended that the Bill should extend the life of Parliament not by a year but by the period of a normal session.

The Prime Minister assured the House that the Government was not wedded to any particular term; Ministers only asked the House to assent to the principle of avoiding a general election next month, and of permissively extending the life of the House to such length of time as would enable its successor to be elected under conditions that would ensure its reflecting the national will. The second reading of the Bill was then carried.

Meanwhile the long but unimportant debates by means of which the Finance Bill made its way through Parliament came to an end. These debates had turned to a great extent upon the protective elements of the Bill, but the subject aroused no interest in the country. The third reading was carried on December 9.

On the same date Lord Halsbury introduced into the House of Lords his Companies of Enemy Character Bill. Lord Hals-

bury explained that a foreigner could constitute himself under the Companies Act an English "person." Consequently a ship flying the English flag might be essentially German property; the Bill was intended to correct these anomalies by judicial machinery.

The Lord Chancellor did not object to the second reading of the Bill which accordingly was carried; but he stated that there was little prospect of its becoming law. In the House of Commons the Government made known that it did not intend to support the Bill, and Ministers were urged to introduce a Bill of their own to prevent companies and other firms of an enemy character from trading in the United Kingdom.

On December 13 the Chancellor of the Exchequer moved the second reading of the War Obligations Bill. He explained that this measure was an indemnity Bill to regularise obligations into which the Government had already entered in the conduct of the war. The country was confronted now with an excess of imports from the United States over our exports to that country; and the only way of restoring the balance of trade and maintaining the rate of exchange was to sell the American securities in the hands of British investors. The Government therefore proposed to buy all American and Canadian securities held in this country at the current American market price, the price being reckoned in sterling and paid in five per cent. exchequer bonds running for five years. Securities which the holders found it inconvenient to sell outright, the Treasury would accept on deposit for two years paying the holder one half per cent. over the dividends or interest due on the face value of the securities. The holder would have the right to sell at any time. If the Treasury found it necessary to sell during the currency of the loan it would have the right to purchase at the middle New York price of the day with the addition of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Criticism on the Bill was mostly of a friendly character and it was read a second time.

The second reading was also taken of a Bill called The Trading with the Enemy (Extension) Bill, which was intended to enable the Government to prevent trading with enemy firms in neutral countries. The Government received power to "black list" firms of enemy nationality or enemy associations domiciled in neutral countries; and upon that measure being taken it would become an offence for British subjects or persons within British jurisdiction to trade with such firms. Both these Bills shortly afterwards became law.

In the second week of December there appeared in the newspapers accounts of an agreement with Denmark which caused various questions to be asked in the House of Commons. In reply to these questions Lord Robert Cecil said that the object of the Government in concluding trading agreements with neutral countries was to inflict on Germany all the economic pressure

possible, in order to bring the war to a speedy and victorious conclusion. Some doubt, however, still existed in the minds of many as to whether commodities might not under the new agreement be reaching Germany through Denmark; accordingly a debate took place in the House of Lords on December 16 in the course of which Lord Strachie, Lord Portsmouth, and Lord Devonport criticised the agreement with the Danish firms. Lord Lansdowne, however, on behalf of the Government, declined to publish the terms of the agreement. He justified this procedure on the ground of the effects of publication upon the enemy, upon Denmark and upon other neutral countries. The primary object of the Danish agreement, he said, was to prevent goods from passing into Germany through neutral channels. The agreement would help us to carry the war to a successful conclusion without incurring the resentment of the neutrals. The debate was then adjourned.

There was further criticism on its resumption on December 20. Lord Sydenham said it was certain that under the Danish agreement large quantities of commodities were passing into Germany; he could not believe that the Admiralty had approved it, for it involved a neglect to use to the utmost our sea-power which was our most potent weapon in the war.

Lord Emmott, director of the war trade department, offered a general defence of the freedom of our export trade. The Government had been pretty successful in depriving Germany of necessities, and the prices of certain foods in that country had at least doubled. He was convinced that the Danish agreement would serve to diminish the imports of many commodities into Germany.

The demand for the publication of the agreement was supported by Lord Milner, who criticised the policy of keeping the people in the dark. Lord Crewe, replying for the Government, said that the agreement had been fully considered by a committee on which the Admiralty had been represented, and it had been approved by the Admiralty. The Government wished to prevent everything going into Germany that Germany wanted, and if they could absolutely besiege Germany they would do so at the first possible moment. The debate thereupon came to an end.

The campaign for economy in the country led to some demand for the reduction of Ministerial salaries. Mr. Asquith, however, declined to accede to the demand, except in the case of the law officers of the Crown, who had themselves arranged that their salaries should be reduced by 1,000*l.* a year, and that there should be a large reduction in the scale of fees paid them for contentious work.

Throughout the first half of December enlisting under Lord Derby's scheme continued without any further check. December 12 was the last day of the scheme, the last day therefore on which

it was open for men to enlist in groups and be called out when required. Upon the expiry of the scheme, enlistment for immediate service was the only course open to intending recruits. The last few days before the closing of the scheme the rush of young men to the recruiting stations was more intense than had yet occurred during the history of the war. Long queues stood before the doors of the recruiting stations, which in many cases remained open all night. It was usually several hours before recruits reached the head of the queue and were attested; and so great was the crush that medical examination was ultimately dispensed with until a more convenient period. Doubtless the rush was in great part due to the belief that compulsory service was likely soon to be instituted. In view of the Prime Minister's statement that the married groups should not be called out unless or until the great mass of the single men of the country had been called first, it followed that the question of compulsory service depended less on the total number of men that had come forward under the voluntary system than upon the proportion of eligible single men out of the total number in the country at large, allowance being made for those who were occupied in munition work or for some other reason relieved from service by the local tribunals set up by Lord Derby.

In view of the great rush of recruits which had marked the closing days of the Derby scheme, it was at first believed that compulsion would be unnecessary. A debate took place in the House of Lords on December 15, in the course of which Lord Derby said he could not yet give any figures as to the result of the canvass, but asked the House to support him in saying that it would be absolutely impossible to take any action which would necessitate calling up married men until the country was convinced that the single men had come forward to such an extent that only a negligible quantity had been unaccounted for.

On December 21 Mr. Asquith moved a supplementary estimate in the House of Commons for another million men for the Army. He stated that in the current financial year provision had been made for three million men, and he asked that it might now be made for four million. He was unable yet to give any figures as to the result of the Derby scheme, but he claimed that they afforded an exhibition of patriotism, self-denial and invincible determination on the part of our people to win the war which would carry conviction to the hearts of our allies. At the same time he renewed his pledge to the married men who had responded to the call for recruits.

The Prime Minister then went on to indicate the measures which were being taken to counteract the advantage enjoyed by the enemy of a single direction of his campaign. A fortnight ago, he said, a most important military conference had been held in Paris, and had been attended by members of the Governments

and military staffs of France, Russia, Italy and the United Kingdom. Certain most important conclusions had been arrived at with absolute unanimity, and it was hoped that the adoption and development of these conclusions would lead to greater concentration of purpose, co-ordination of plans, economy of energy, and effectiveness of action.

Mr. Redmond expressed disappointment with the Prime Minister's speech. He spoke for the whole Irish party, in saying that the question of compulsion was one of expediency rather than principle; but in the present circumstances he would oppose any attempt to introduce compulsion in regard to any class by every means in his power. Mr. Redmond was followed by Mr. Stanton, the new member for Merthyr Tydvil, who expressed himself as definitely in favour of compulsory military service if the Government considered that measure to be expedient. Later in the debate Mr. Tennant appealed to the Irish members to throw in their lot with the Government if compulsory measures should be found to be necessary. Mr. Runciman, the President of the Board of Trade, then drew attention strongly to the vital part borne in national service by our trade and commerce; and claimed that unless a just balance were preserved as between the numbers of our population given to the Army and the numbers retained in the country for the maintenance of industry we should bring disaster upon ourselves and our allies.

The hope that an announcement as to the result of the Derby scheme might be made before the adjournment of Parliament was disappointed, and as far as Parliament was concerned the whole subject was postponed till 1916.

The only remaining measure of importance dealt with before Christmas was the Munitions of War (Amendment) Bill. The second reading was moved by Dr. Addison in the House of Commons on December 15. The Bill provided that munition workers who were dismissed should be given leaving certificates unless they had deliberately misbehaved with the object of getting themselves dismissed. They were also to be given certificates in cases in which they were suspended for more than three days, and where they could show that they were seeking work which would more advantageously engage their special skill than the work which they proposed to leave. Munition workers were to have at least a week's notice of dismissal.

The many suggestions for the modification of the munitions tribunals had been found impracticable; but the chairmen of the tribunals were to consult the Assessors in future before giving their decision. Provision was made for the adequate remuneration of women workers in munitions factories, and war work was more extensively defined than formerly. Power was given to the department to examine the books of firms engaged in war work, and Dr. Addison mentioned that the mere threat to examine the

books of one firm had brought the price of a certain material down from 30*l.* a ton to 20*l.* a ton, and so had saved the country half a million sterling in a very short time.

The criticisms of the Labour members though not very sympathetic were of a tolerant character ; and Mr. Lloyd George in his reply reminded them that compulsion had been applied to employers as well as workmen in the munitions areas and that thereby the country had been saved 20,000,000*l.* The Munitions Act had succeeded, for since it had come into operation strikes had been almost unknown. In Admiralty work especially there had been a great increase in output in consequence of the Act. Mr. Lloyd George insisted that the State had the right to command the services of every citizen in an emergency. No Munitions Act had been necessary in France because it was there recognised that the State might commandeer every man in time of war. The second reading was then carried.

The Committee stage was taken on December 17. Mr. Hodge, Mr. Wardle and Mr. Tyson Wilson again insisted upon the absurdity of appointing pork-butchers and pawn-brokers' assistants as inspectors of shells and other munitions. A Labour Amendment was moved to make the assessors on the munitions tribunals members of those bodies and equal in authority with the chairmen. It was urged that at least when the representatives of the employers and the employed on the tribunal agreed their agreement should be the finding of the Court. Mr. Lloyd George consented to include a provision to this effect in the Bill, but the more far-reaching amendment was negatived on a division with only ten supporters.

It had been intended to deal with the report stage of the Munitions of War (Amendment) Bill on December 22, but owing to the absence of Mr. Lloyd George in the North of England Mr. Asquith reluctantly decided to postpone it until after the adjournment. In the course of a miscellaneous debate on that day Mr. Tennant stated that he believed, though he was not sure, that the Army did not exceed the authorised number of three millions. The War Office reckoned that for every man abroad they ought to have 1·8 at home ; the wastage was 15 per cent. per month.

During the Committee stage of the Parliament and Registration Bill, the Prime Minister moved that the period of prolongation of the existing Parliament should be reduced from a year as proposed by the Bill to eight months. A division was taken, but this compromise was generally accepted in all quarters of the House and the bill finally passed through the House of Commons.

Before the adjournment of the House of Commons an important statement was made by Mr. Lloyd George on the work of the Munitions Ministry. He said that when the Ministry was formed it proceeded to ascertain the causes of the insufficiency of

munitions and step by step to remove them. The output of munitions had been prodigiously increased. At least a hundred firms that had never produced munitions before had been engaged under the auspices of the department in turning out shells and parts of shells; the situation had greatly changed from the beginning of the war when the Germans were turning out 250,000 shells a day while we were turning out 2,500 in high explosives and 13,000 in shrapnel. In the recent operations on the Western front there had been an enormous expenditure of shells, the whole of which had been replaced within a month, and the department would soon be in a position to supply an equal quantity within a week. We had come rather late to the conclusion that big guns on a larger scale were essential to victory, but adequate provision had now been made for these, and the heaviest siege gun we had had at the beginning of the war was now the lightest.

We had also been rather late in realising the great part of machine-guns in this war, but that requirement too was now being met. For the new factories contemplated, the Ministry required 80,000 skilled men and 200,000 to 300,000 unskilled men. Nothing could be more mischievous, he said, than to suggest that we were over-producing war material. Only 8 per cent. of the factories employed in turning out guns were working on night shift, for the others had not the skilled men to enable them to do so. He appealed to employers to take the initiative by setting women and unskilled men to do work which they could well do but which was now absorbing so much skilled labour. In conclusion he said that we must throw aside the delusion that we could win victory by an elaborate pretence that we were doing it. The footsteps of the allies had been dogged by the mocking spectre of "too late," and unless we quickened our pace, damnation would overtake our cause.

In the last week of the year Mr. Lloyd George visited Glasgow, and on Christmas morning he addressed a meeting of the Shop Stewards and Trade-Union officials on "the imperative need for some scheme of Labour dilution." Mr. Arthur Henderson was in the chair and over 3,000 persons were present. Mr. Lloyd George impressed upon the meeting the necessity for employing women and relaxing various trade-union rules for the purpose of releasing skilled men for the work which they were the most competent to perform. There was a good deal of interruption in the course of the proceedings, and it was apparent that a minority existed which was opposed to the principle of the war.

The House of Commons adjourned on December 23 till January 4; and the motion for the adjournment was as usual made the occasion for debate on a variety of different subjects. The most important subject discussed was the lack of shipping tonnage, the consequent high freight charges, and the preparations to be made for the re-organisation of our commerce after the war.

Sir Charles Henry, Sir Edwin Cornwall and Mr. Bryce urged the Government to make more use of the business men of the House by putting them on Committees to give the departments and especially the Board of Trade the benefit of their expert knowledge.

Mr. Runciman in reply said that the preparations and negotiations necessary for the restoration of our commerce after the war demanded absolute secrecy, and he found that efficiency could be attained by the setting up of quite small bodies of expert advisers. He hoped that our allies would not imagine that these necessary preparations meant that we contemplated an early peace; we were as resolute in prosecuting the war to a successful conclusion as the other members of the alliance. So far as commerce was concerned, Germany was already beaten, and it was our business to take care that she did not get her head up again.

Mr. Balfour then declared that the Admiralty and its transport department could not interfere with the discretion of the military authorities when these authorities considered it necessary to hold up shipping. Mr. Balfour invited any one who thought there was a remedy for the present limitation of tonnage to bring it to his notice.

British diplomacy in the Balkans and the blockade of Germany were raised by two or three members, but Lord Robert Cecil declined to enter into any explanation of our negotiations with Greece. Towards the close of the debate Mr. George Terrell complained of the length of the adjournment on the ground that the Munitions (Amendment) Bill was urgently required and that the country was waiting impatiently for the Prime Minister's decision with regard to Lord Derby's scheme.

Although no announcement as to the results of that scheme was made before the end of the year, yet it soon became known that the proportion of single men who had taken advantage of it was not considered by the Cabinet sufficient to cover the terms of the pledge which had been given by Mr. Asquith. The figures were discussed at a Cabinet meeting held on December 28, when it was understood that a decision had been reached that some measure of compulsion would have to be introduced. It was believed that the opposition to compulsory measures in the Cabinet came from the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the President of the Board of Trade, and the Home Secretary. Mr. McKenna and Mr. Runciman founded their objection to compulsion on the belief that it would prejudice the trade and finance of the country. At a further Cabinet meeting on the last day of the year it was noticed that Sir John Simon failed to attend, and the inference was drawn that he had tendered his resignation to the Prime Minister. As soon as the decision of the Government became known, a hasty meeting of Labour representatives was called, but no definite course of action was decided upon, and the question

of the attitude which should be adopted by Labour was deferred to the first week of the new year, when a more complete conference of Labour representatives could be held, and the concrete proposals of the Government would be known. The whole important and controversial problem of compulsory military service thus reached a crisis in the last days of the year; and the solution of that problem was left over as by far the most important subject of internal settlement for 1916.

FOREIGN AND COLONIAL HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

FRANCE AND ITALY.

I. FRANCE.

THE beginning of the year in France found the attention of the country riveted upon the events of the war to the almost complete exclusion of political questions. Military operations were indeed not productive of any other incidents than those of the siege warfare into which the campaign had degenerated at the end of 1914. But the quiescence in the theatre of war gradually produced a relaxation of the anxious tension which had gripped the country in the previous year; and the first event to be recorded for 1915 is the withdrawal of the greater part of the Departments of the Seine and Seine-et-Oise from the "zone of the armies" and their restoration to the "interior zone."

The session of the Chambers opened on January 12. One hundred and twenty deputies had already been mobilised for military service; and the sittings of the Assembly were reduced to a minimum by the system of referring all bills to select committees, so that Parliament should have nothing further to do than to vote upon them. M. Dubost, the ex-President of the Senate, and M. Deschanel, the ex-President of the Chamber, were both re-elected to their former offices. But nothing of interest took place, and it was not till the end of the month that any approach to normal debate was attained. On February 11 a Bill was introduced (and subsequently passed) enabling soldiers on service with the colours to be married by proxy, the bridegroom being represented by some one appointed by him to take his place.

An interesting manifestation of the new spirit prevalent in France was made apparent by the passage of a Bill on February 12 for the suppression of the sale of absinthe. That dangerous liquor had already been suppressed as a temporary measure since the beginning of the war; but the prohibition was not wholly effectual, and by a vote of 481 to 52, absinthe was suppressed entirely throughout France, not only during the war, but for all time.

Early in March M. Ribot laid before the Chamber a Bill providing for advances to allies and friendly nations. The advances already made amounted to 18,220,000*l.*; of which Belgium had 10,000,000*l.*, Serbia 7,400,000*l.*, Greece 800,000*l.*, and Montenegro 20,000*l.* The remainder was to cover fresh advances to Belgium, Serbia, and Russia. The amount of these loans was fixed at 54,000,000*l.*; it was carried by the Chamber and finally passed through the Senate on March 30.

The second report of the French official commission on German atrocities was published on March 10, and furnished almost as damning an indictment of German civilisation as the first. But perhaps the most important topic before public attention during March was the trial before a Military Tribunal of Desclaux, a former Secretary of M. Caillaux, on the charge of embezzling in his capacity of paymaster a quantity of stores destined for the Army. It was proved that he was in the habit of sending to his mistress, Mme. Bechoff, daily packages of food; and after a trial of only four days he was sentenced to seven years' solitary imprisonment and military degradation, while Mme. Bechoff received two years' imprisonment.

The Chamber of Deputies adjourned for four weeks at Easter; but on its re-assembling, on April 29, it was confronted with the same complete absence of controversial questions. The profound internal peace reigning throughout France was especially apparent on May 1, which was celebrated as a pleasant *fête*, the Workmen's Federation having decided not to suspend work.

In the Chamber on May 7 M. Ribot outlined the financial position, which was as follows: Treasury paper in circulation, 199,000,000*l.*, excluding advances made to foreign States; debt to the Bank of France, 216,000,000*l.* A fresh convention had been signed with the bank whereby the total indebtedness of the Government to the bank might be increased to 360,000,000*l.*; the cost of the war, which was rapidly increasing, amounted during April to 60,000,000*l.* Dealing with his recent negotiations with Mr. Lloyd George, M. Ribot said that the English Chancellor of the Exchequer had agreed to open a credit for France of 60,000,000*l.* in return for the transference of 20,000,000*l.* in gold to London. It was announced also that in future all the purchases of the Allies in the United States would be made by one representative in order to avoid competition.

On June 3 M. Ribot tabled a demand in the Chamber for the opening of a credit for ordinary war expenditure for the third quarter of the year, amounting approximately to 224,225,200*l.*, thus bringing the cost of the first fourteen months of war up to about 883,880,000*l.* The firm confidence of the public in the Government was evinced by the fact that from January 1 to May 15 Treasury bonds and the 3½ per cent. loan brought in 194,240,000*l.*, whereas during the last five months of 1914 they had produced

only 77,600,000*l.*, scarcely half the amount obtained from the Bank of France and Bank of Algeria.

Early in June there began to be expressed considerable dissatisfaction with the organisation of the supply of munitions. It was found that the capacity for production not so much in shells as in other armament had not been developed to the highest point of which it was capable. There is no doubt, however, that the trouble was very largely due to the extreme difficulties under which the armament firms were obliged to work. Since the beginning of the war the French department of *Meurthe-et-Moselle*, which produced nine-tenths of the total French output of iron, had been in the hands of the Germans. These criticisms culminated in the creation of a new department of the Ministry for War, whose functions were the same as those of the British Ministry of Munitions; to this new department M. Albert Thomas was appointed, and he immediately set about the organisation of his new Ministry with great energy. In the middle of June President Poincaré visited a number of public and private establishments engaged in the production of munitions. He urged upon the directors of the factories and the workmen the importance of the speedy manufacture of guns, trench weapons, and munitions. This question, he said, was gradually increasing in importance, for the final victory would be achieved only if moral strength was supported by material strength. As a result of these measures the complaints as to deficient organisation soon died away.

The pressure of work upon the Ministry for War involved the appointment of other officials in addition to M. Albert Thomas, and on July 1 the Government in Cabinet Council appointed two additional Under-Secretaries of State for War—one for commissariat and the other for the medical service. The first position was filled by M. Joseph Thierry, who had been Minister for Public Works in the Barthou Administration, and the second by M. Justin Godart.

At the beginning of July M. Ribot made an appeal to the public to exchange their savings in gold against bank-notes, and the appeal met with an immediate and gratifying response. During two hours it was said that savings amounting to 4,000*l.* were received, and after four weeks a sum of nearly 8,000,000*l.* had entered the public coffers; of which 14,000*l.* came from the town of Rheims alone, notwithstanding the havoc wrought by the bombardment.

The celebration of July 14 provided an occasion for a great display of national unity in the presence of the enemy. The remains of Rouget de Lisle, composer of the *Marseillaise*, were taken to the Invalides, followed by a large procession, including members of the Government, many officers and soldiers on leave, and headed by M. Poincaré. At the Invalides the President delivered an address in which he denounced the hypocritical diplo-

macy with which Germany had brought on the war. "Since we have been forced to draw the sword we have not the right to sheathe it until the day when we have avenged our dead, when the common victory of the Allies shall allow us to rebuild our ruins, to make France whole again, to protect her effectively against the periodical renewal of provocation. What would the morrow hold for us if it were possible for a limping, panting peace to be established among the ruins of our destroyed cities? A new Draconian law would be forced upon our exhaustion. We should fall for ever under the political, moral and economic vassalage of our enemies; the manufacturers, agriculturists and workmen of France would be at the mercy of their triumphant rivals, and humiliated France would collapse under the weight of despair and self-contempt."

Towards the end of the month it appeared possible that a conflict might occur between Parliament and the Government on the subject of Parliamentary control. For some time past discussion had been taking place in Parliamentary circles as to the precise part which Parliament ought to play in the conduct of the war, and there had been considerable discontent on account of the effacement of Parliament in all matters of military preparations. On July 26 and 27 delegates representing every group in the Chamber met to discuss the question of enforcing control over the actions of the executive. All parties were agreed that military operations, and the appointment or removal of generals, should be excluded from the sphere of such control. The proposal finally adopted was that the Parliamentary Committees should have power to appoint delegates to visit the front from time to time, to study specific questions, though not to wander at large within the zone of the armies. To this proposal M. Viviani and M. Millerand agreed, and by this compromise the threatened conflict was averted.

On August 5 the Chamber met to renew the *Union Sacrée* proclaimed a year previously; and the proceedings furnished abundant proof of the union of the French people. M. Deschanel delivered a patriotic speech, declaring that France would hunt back to its eerie the vulture which was preying upon it. The speech was received with enormous enthusiasm, and M. Viviani then delivered a message from the President, who wished to associate himself with the Government and the Chamber in paying a tribute of admiration and gratitude to the nation and the Army. "The only peace which the Republic can accept is that which shall guarantee the security of Europe, allow us to breathe, to live and to labour; which will rebuild our dismembered Fatherland, restore our ruins and effectively protect us against any aggressive renewal of German ambitions. The present generations are responsible for France to posterity, they will not allow the trust which our ancestors have given to their passing care to be pro-

fanned or lessened. *La France veut vaincre, elle vaincra.*" A motion was subsequently adopted on the proposal of M. Raynaud, expressing to the Russian Duma the profound admiration of the French people.

The latter half of August was characterised by much excitement and dissension in political circles. For some time past much dissatisfaction had been expressed by the Radicals and Socialists with M. Millerand's conduct of the War Office. The charges brought against him were mainly those of shielding incompetent collaborators, of abdicating the rights and prerogatives of the Ministry of War in dealing with the higher command of the Army, and finally of hostility to parliamentary control. The criticisms came to a head on August 20, when M. Millerand defended himself at length in the course of a debate in the Chamber on the sanitary service. He caused much irritation to the Radical Socialists by delivering a eulogy of Dr. Toussaint, who had just been removed from the direction of the medical services. He then passed to the more delicate topic of his relations with General Joffre. The chief item in the charges brought against him under this head was that of yielding to the Generalissimo's desire for the removal from his command of General Sarrail to a less important post. It was alleged that this General, who had been identified with advanced Radicalism, had very successfully carried out the duties which had been allotted to him. M. Millerand impressed upon the Chamber the necessity of his maintaining cordial relations with General Joffre, and accused his detractors of introducing political considerations into matters of a purely military character. Authority and responsibility, he insisted, could not be divided; and when his correspondence with the general staff became known, it would be seen that he had never ceased to widen the conditions of civil control and reconcile its practice with military necessity. He urged upon the Chamber the duty of continuing to impose upon itself the discipline which was necessary, in order that the head of the operations in the field might have the requisite freedom. Notwithstanding this speech, M. Franklin-Bouillon, a Radical Socialist, demanded an opportunity for the Chamber to discuss all the matters in question, in such a way as to spread no alarm at home or abroad. In reply to this demand the Cabinet on the following day agreed to hold a secret sitting of the Chamber in Committee if that course should be insisted upon. The acceptance of their demands, however, immediately caused some misgivings to the Radical Socialist group; and when the Chamber met again on August 25 it was very questionable whether they would press their demands for a secret sitting in face of the many dangers and difficulties which that course involved. The sitting of the Chamber was a memorable one. At its opening M. Viviani went at once to the Tribune and delivered a speech which was generally regarded as the finest oration heard in France since the

beginning of the war. Time after time the House rose to its feet with a burst of applause and enthusiasm. He outlined the origin and growth of political disquiet and expressed the readiness of the Government to hold a secret meeting of the Chamber if that course should be desired. He said that the Government must have serenity if it was to govern, and asked Parliament to give it its strength and support. He admitted that some departments of the War Office had committed errors, but these had now been remedied. He referred to the talk in the German Press about divisions in France, and said that it would be fatal if there were anywhere in France a body of people, however small, who thought of premature peace. The enthusiasm aroused by this speech killed the demand for a secret sitting, although the Socialist M. Varenne persisted that such a course ought to be taken. The project, however, was rejected by 289 votes to 237, the minority being composed of Socialists and some of the Radical Socialists; and the House then adjourned until September 16.

Curtailement in the facilities for selling alcoholic liquor continued to be made more rigid. As already stated the sale of absinthe was altogether prohibited; and in the middle of July the military governor of Paris prohibited the sale to all ranks of all spirits, *apéritifs* and liqueurs. Later, a still more revolutionary step was proposed, in the suppression of the right to distil for private consumption. The necessity for such a measure had for some time been becoming obvious.

The session of Parliament re-opened after its three weeks' adjournment on September 16. Two days before the opening the Ministerial Council had decided to create an Under-Secretaryship of State for aviation, and M. Millerand, who had proposed the innovation, appointed to the post M. René Besnard, who previously occupied the Under-Secretaryship of Fine Arts and of Finance. But the first business of the Chamber was to pass a Bill introduced by the Minister of War, calling up the 1917 class of recruits for training on October 15. This innovation rendered young men of eighteen liable for service in France; and the last new contingents would obtain a training of five months before serving with the troops at the front. In the same Bill power was taken to retain with the colours the class of 1888 which under normal circumstances was due to be liberated. On September 23 financial affairs were again discussed in the Chamber. The British Budget had deeply impressed the French with the resolution and resources of Great Britain, and M. Ribot found no difficulty in inducing the Chamber to agree to his proposals without any detailed debate. He asked for a vote on account for the last three months of the year, the amount estimated for this period being approximately 250,000,000*l.* The cost of the war to France up to the end of the year would thus amount to 1,200,000,000*l.*; the monthly average had risen from 52,000,000*l.*

to nearly 83,000,000*l.*, mainly as a result of the increased output of munitions and material.

When the great German offensive against Russia was brought to an end and armies were launched against Serbia, the French Press clamoured loudly for intervention in assistance of their Balkan Allies. The character of the intervention, the number of men required and so on was decided upon between the French and British military authorities, and armies from both countries were despatched to Salonika. [See History of the War.] A statement of the Prime Minister was urgently demanded on the subject of the new expedition, for there had been much misgiving as to the supposed delays, hesitations and mistakes of the Allied diplomacy. M. Viviani met the demand for a statement in the Chamber on October 12. He outlined the diplomatic negotiations which preceded the entry of Bulgaria into the war and said that in view of the German attack on Serbia it became incumbent both from moral and military points of view to send an expedition to the relief of that country. "We could not agree to the isolation of Serbia and the rupture of communications with our Allies and our friends." He defended the violation of Greek neutrality on the ground of the welcome offered to the French troops by a people already allied with Serbia; and he stated that Russia also was sending an army to co-operate with the British and French troops. On the day following this speech a political crisis was precipitated by the resignation of M. Delcassé, the Minister for Foreign Affairs. In reply to an interpolation by M. Painlevé, M. Viviani assured the Chamber that there had been no grounds of difference between M. Delcassé and the Cabinet, and that the resignation had originally been presented on grounds of health. The Prime Minister declined to give any further information, and a scene in the Chamber was created by violent Anti-republican attacks of one or two comparatively irresponsible members. A division was taken on the question of a secret meeting of the Chamber, and the proposal was rejected by 303 votes to 190; but the violent language of M. Pugliesi Conti in proposing a vote of confidence led to wild scenes and the suspension of the sitting.

It soon became known that M. Delcassé's resignation had direct reference to the Allied expedition to Salonika. The Foreign Minister had conducted the Balkan negotiations preliminary to the landing; but the resignation of M. Venezelos and the determination of Greece to maintain her neutrality, so greatly changed the aspect of affairs that M. Delcassé no longer felt justified in conducting a diplomacy, the conditions of which had been so completely altered. It then no longer seemed to him that the expedition to Salonika was advisable. The vote of confidence in the Government demanded by M. Viviani was ultimately carried by 372 votes to 9, although about 200 deputies refrained altogether from voting.

The resignation of M. Delcassé was the immediate cause of the fall of the French Government. For some time past the Ministry had failed to obtain the confidence of the country; though the exceedingly strict censorship effectually prevented any public criticism. Expressions of dissatisfaction came chiefly from the Parliamentary Committees of Foreign Affairs, War, Navy, and Budget, each of which consisted of forty-four members drawn on a proportional basis from the various groups of the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate, and represented the informed and united opinion of Parliament. Matters were brought to a head by the failure of the *entente* diplomacy in the Balkans and the resignation of M. Delcassé; and on October 28 it was announced that a new Ministry was in course of formation under the Premiership of M. Briand. Three days later the constitution of the new Ministry was published. It contained, including the Under-Secretaries, twenty-three members, and showed no change in the preponderance of any one party. General Gallieni succeeded M. Millerand as Minister of War, while Admiral Lacaze became Minister of Marine. The other offices were distributed as follows: Justice, M. Viviani; Interior, M. Malvy; Finance, M. Ribot; Agriculture, M. Méline; Public Works, M. Marcel Sembat; Commerce, M. Clémentel; Colonies, M. Doumergue; Instruction and Inventions affecting National Defence, M. Painlevé. M. Briand himself assumed the direction of Foreign Affairs, while M. Jules Cambon, former Ambassador in Berlin, became Secretary-General to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The Ministers of State were M. de Freycinet, M. Bourgeois, M. Combes, M. Jules Guesde and M. Denys Cochin. The Cabinet thus contained no fewer than eight ex-Premiers of France; it included three Collectivist Socialists, three Independent Socialists, six Radicals and Socialist-Radicals, two Moderate Republicans, one Progressist and one member of the Right (M. Denys Cochin). The appointment of a General to the Ministry of War was not altogether harmonious to Radical sentiment, more particularly in view of rumours early in the war that the new Minister had not escaped dissensions with General Joffre. But the personality and well-known patriotism of General Gallieni disarmed criticism, and entire confidence was felt that no friction would occur between him and the leader of the French Army in the field.

The first concern of M. Briand on coming into power was to issue a statement to the effect that the change of Ministry was in no way a sign of any change of policy. The policy of France was summed up in the one word "Victory" and their only motto was *La paix par la Victoire*.

M. Briand announced the Government policy to the Chamber on November 3. "You do not," he said, "expect a long statement. We are at war; it is the time for acts; all the energies of the Government must be directed towards action, clear-cut

rapid decisions and prompt execution, freed from vain formulæ, hesitation and all uncertainty—it is towards this that we shall apply our minds and energy.” M. Briand went on to pay a high tribute to the Army: “Never has France had an Army more worthy of victory.” The attitude of the country, he said, showed its readiness to meet every trial, however sorrowful or hard. He indicated the intention of the Government to reconsider the question of the censorship for the purpose of conciliating the interests of liberty and authority. The union between the Allies was daily becoming closer, and France would only disarm after the restoration of right through victory, and when she had obtained guarantees of a durable peace. “We have decided to go on to the end. Our enemies cannot reckon on either weariness or exhaustion on our side. Having taken the measure of our task, however hard it may be, we intend to pursue it to the inevitable end. We have the will to conquer; we shall conquer.”

M. Briand's declaration was received with loud applause. M. Bokanowski urged the Government not to be afraid of being somewhat revolutionary in dealing with mismanagement and muddle. He urged M. Briand to obtain the adhesion of the Allies to the establishment of a joint military council, a measure which was indeed soon afterwards adopted. After some further debate a vote of confidence in the new Ministry was adopted by 515 votes to 1.

The only inharmonious element which occurred in the course of this debate was when M. Renaudel urged that there should be no thought of annexation or conquest by France, apart from the restoration of justice and the restitution of autonomy to Belgium and Serbia. His speech was interrupted by a wounded deputy, M. Maginot, who rose with difficulty from his seat to protest against any man or any party daring while the battle was still in progress to limit the claims of France. In the Press there was not a single discordant note.

One of the first acts of the new Government was to confer more extensive powers upon M. Albert Thomas, who had of course retained his office as Minister of Munitions. The questions of finance quickly occupied their attention, and on November 10 M. Ribot discussed the financial situation with the Budget Committee of the Chamber. On the following day he introduced a Bill to float an internal loan for the first time since the beginning of the war. The loan was for an unlimited amount and the list was to remain open until the Government's requirements were met. It bore interest nominally at 5 per cent., but in reality gave a yield of between $5\frac{1}{2}$ and $5\frac{3}{4}$, and it was exempted from all taxation. The success of the loan which was passed by the Senate on November 16 was immediately assured.

On December 15 the Chamber considered a Bill for the opening of provisional credits amounting to 300,560,000*l.* for the

first three months of 1916. M. Raoul Peret estimated that for the first seventeen months of war the total cost exceeded 1,240,000,000*l.*; the military expenses amounted to 973,895,540*l.*, and other expenses to 267,067,706*l.* During the year the average expenses per month were 73,760,000*l.*, of which 57,080,000*l.* were spent by the armies.

The Army Committee decided by 19 votes to 15 that the 1917 class of recruits should be called up on December 15. Speaking in the Chamber on November 30 General Gallieni said that he entirely agreed with General Joffre that the calling up of the 1917 class was a mere precautionary measure. He wished this class to be ready by the Spring of 1916 when, he said, "in agreement with our Allies, our reinforcements and armaments will allow us to make a decisive effort."

On December 15 a debate upon war contracts took place in the Chamber when various disagreeable accusations were made. M. Simyan, a member of the Budget Committee, showed that at the beginning of the war a gang of needy adventurers had rushed to the War Office in search of contracts and commissions. In one case an Englishman contracted to supply 25,000 horses and was able to give his intermediary a commission of 50,000*l.* After a long debate, in the course of which General Gallieni pointed out that out of over a hundred thousand contracts only thirty had been called in question, a Parliamentary Committee of inquiry was appointed.

The result of the French "Loan of Victory" was communicated by M. Ribot to the Senate on December 24. In round figures the loan produced 580,000,000*l.*, of which 220,000,000*l.* represented fresh money. About two millions of the subscribers were from the provinces and one million from Paris, while 22,000 were English. In view of the fact that the richest and most industrious provinces of France were in the hands of the enemy, the result was looked upon as very remarkable and of excellent augury for the successful prosecution of the war in the forthcoming year.

II. ITALY.

The beginning of the year found Italy threatened with complications in Albania. It will be remembered that Vallona had already been occupied by Italian troops; and it was intended to remain in occupation of that town until some permanent arrangement could be reached with regard to Albania at the end of the European War. The Government of Albania was in the hands of Essad Pasha, and on January 3 the rebels despatched a letter to Essad signed "The Mussulman Committee" in which they demanded that the Ministers of France and Serbia should be handed over to them. On the same night they commenced an attempt upon Durazzo. The Italian legation immediately communicated

with the warships *Misurata* and *Sardegna* which had been sent by the Government to protect the lives and properties of Italian citizens. These ships fired upon the rebels who, during the 4th, were repulsed in the neighbourhood of the town. The Italian colony together with the Italian, French, and Serbian Legations were embarked upon the *Sardegna*. Essad Pasha appeared to be quite capable of holding back the rebels and Italy took no step towards an occupation of Durazzo.

Attention was soon diverted, however, from political questions by one of the most shocking catastrophes that had ever occurred in the history of the nation. Shortly before 8 o'clock on the morning of January 13 there occurred a violent earthquake which totally destroyed the two towns of Avezzano and Sora and did great damage in other parts of the country. The centre of the earthquake was at Avezzano, a town of about 11,000 inhabitants; and it was estimated that 96 per cent. of the population of the town were killed. The towns and villages in the neighbourhood of the earthquake were seized with panic, and refugees crowded the roads to Rome. In Rome itself eighty houses were damaged and the shock was felt also at Naples, Caserta, Bologna, and Ancona. Cese was completely destroyed and many other villages in the neighbourhood, while almost the whole population was buried in their ruins. King Victor Emmanuel paid visits to the ruins of Avezzano and Sora, while Queen Helena, who had recently given birth to a daughter, organised special trains from Rome, loaded with food, clothes, and medicines. During the night of the 18th three further shocks were felt in the province of Cosenza, Calabria; and some slight damage was done to the village of Luzzi. On the 27th a shock was felt in the province of Benevento, and in both cases great panic ensued. It was subsequently estimated from statistics gathered in the district of the earthquake that the total number of lives lost amounted to 24,200. With the exception of a few hundred the dead belonged to the Avezzano district.

The dominating issue in Italian politics at this time was the question of the maintenance of neutrality. Throughout the country there existed a strong feeling in favour of joining in the war, but neither the Government nor the Chamber showed at this time any inclination to depart from the policy of neutrality. On February 18 the Chamber of Deputies re-assembled. The President of the Chamber, Signor Salandra, made a moving speech in commemoration of the victims of the earthquake; allusions in a speech of Signor Berenini to German barbarism was received with mixed feelings. The general impression was that the Chamber was neither interventionist nor neutralist, but would follow the Government in any action that might be deemed necessary in the interests of the country. At the end of the sitting an unexpected motion was brought forward by Signor

Marangoni in the name of the Socialists. He said that the country had been left in darkness at a grave and tragic moment with regard to its international relations; he desired that Parliament should resume its liberty to discuss foreign policy, and in his motion invited the Government to explain its policy clearly to Parliament and the country. The proposal of Signor Marangoni was rejected by 254 votes to 27, and on a subsequent motion, presented by Signor Chiesa, the Premier said that the Government considered a discussion of Foreign Affairs inopportune.

Demonstrations in favour of war continued nevertheless to take place in various parts of the country. At Rome a Socialist meeting against war was broken up by a band of interventionists and a riot ensued. At Venice on February 21 a crowd assembled in the Piazza and burnt the Austrian flag. At Reggio in Emilia an attack by neutralists on an interventionist meeting resulted in the death of two men and the wounding of several others. In consequence of this, instructions were issued on the 26th for the prohibition of all meetings dangerous to public order; and the Prime Minister declared in the Chamber that the supreme interest of the country was to prevent any weakening of Italy's attitude by internal disturbances. Signor Turati, on behalf of the Socialists, angrily opposed Signor Salandra's attempt to suppress private demonstrations, but the Prime Minister's reply was firm and emphatic. He said he did not know whether or not the country would be called upon to act, but he did know that if it was called upon to act the nation would follow unanimously the orders of the King. The Chamber again evinced its firm support of the Government by rejecting Signor Turati's motion by 314 votes to 44. On March 1 the Prime Minister introduced a Bill entitled Provisions for the Economic and Military Defence of the State. The Bill increased the penalties for fraudulent exportation and for communication of news of a military character. On the following day the Minister of War, General Zupelli, brought in a Bill for removing all limitations to the recall of reserve officers to the colours in peace time. He stated that this measure would add 7,000 officers to the active list by the end of March and he attracted much attention by his reply to a criticism that this step had not been taken sooner; for he added that during the winter when the Alps were covered with snow a war would have been almost impossible. The law for the defence of the State met with no real opposition and the formal objections put forward by the Socialists appeared to be academic rather than due to any real feeling. The principle of the Bill was carried on March 14 by 334 votes to 33; and on March 22 the Chamber adjourned to May 12.

During the vacation strenuous diplomatic efforts were made by Germany in the desperate hope of preventing an outbreak of war between Italy and Austria. For more than a month the

air was thick with rumours as to the progress of the negotiations ; but nothing was definitely known until the publication of the Green Book just before the declaration of war. Prince Bülow who conducted the negotiations on behalf of Germany was hampered by the natural unwillingness of Austria to submit to those cessions of territory which alone could induce the Italian Government to maintain neutrality. It appeared that on March 27 Baron de Burian asked that Italy should pledge herself to benevolent neutrality throughout the period of the war, that Austria should have freedom of action in the Balkans, that Italy should renounce all compensations except those to be arranged under the forthcoming agreement and that the existing Italo-Austrian agreement regarding Albania should be maintained. In return he offered to Italy the districts of Rovereto, Riva, Tione, excluding Madonna di Campiglio, and the neighbourhood of Trento and the district of Borgo up to Lavis ; he also invited counter-proposals.

On April 8 Baron Sonnino named the Italian demands. These included (1) the cession of the Trentino, up to the frontiers of the Italian Kingdom of 1811 ; (2) the Eastern frontier to include Malborghetto, Plezzo, Tolmino, Gorizia and Comen, reaching the sea at Nabresina. (3) The establishment of Trieste and district as an independent State. (4) The cession to Italy of the following Dalmatian Islands : Lissa, Lesina, Curzola, Lagosta, Cazza and Meleda. (5) The renunciation of Austrian interests in Albania and recognition of Italian sovereignty over Avlona. To these terms Austria refused to accede, modifying her previous terms only by the offer of a slightly larger part of the Trentino. In consequence of this reply, showing that agreement was quite impossible, Baron Sonnino announced that Italy must at once resume her freedom of action ; and on May 4 he delivered to Baron de Burian through the Duke of Avarna a formal denunciation of the Italian Treaty with Austria-Hungary.

Meanwhile the country at large was still divided into the two factions of interventionists and neutralists. The interventionists included the Nationalists, the Radicals, the Republicans and the Democrats in general. The neutralists, on the other hand, comprised the Conservatives and Catholics as well as the official Socialists. The Liberals, who were essentially the party of the Government, abstained from any active expression of opinion. The grounds upon which the Interventionists based their demands for war against the Central Powers were several. Firstly was urged the necessity of seizing the opportunity to settle the national Irredentist problem at the expense of Austria and to secure a definite settlement of the military frontiers on the north and east. Secondly the need was felt for establishing the country in a new moral and political position in reconstituted Europe in place of that which she had abandoned at the outbreak of hos-

tilities. There also existed a very natural fear lest a German hegemony should be set up at the expense of other cultures and civilisations.

Baron Sonnino, the Foreign Minister, steadily refused to abate any part of his demands on the Austrian Government; and those demands at length began to assume the form of an ultimatum. It was in vain that the German Emperor despatched a threatening telegram to Prince Bülow on the consequences to Italy of entering into the war. It was in vain that he followed it up with an appeal to the King to assist him in arriving at a settlement between his country and Austria. It gradually became clear that the Salandra-Sonnino Government were bent upon war, and the only hope remaining to the neutralists was that Signor Giolitti might be induced to place himself at the head of a peace party which should endeavour to secure the acceptance of the concessions offered by Austria. For one moment it appeared that the manœuvres of the Giolitti party were destined to succeed; for on May 13 Signor Salandra, feeling that he had not the unanimity of the country behind him, presented to the King the resignation of the Ministry. But the triumph of the neutralists was short-lived. On May 14 the King received the President of the Senate, Signor Manfredi; the President of the Chamber, Signor Marcora, and also Signor Giolitti; and on the following day it was announced that the resignation of the Ministry had been declined. It was indeed quite apparent that no alternative Government was possible. No member of the Giolitti party could have ruled in Italy in face of the determined opposition of the great majority of the nation; and Signor Salandra returned to office with an enormously increased prestige throughout the country.

The re-opening of Parliament which was intended to have taken place on May 12, was deferred until May 20. On that day the Chamber met and held what was perhaps the most important meeting it had ever had. Four hundred and eighty deputies were present, Signor Giolitti being the only notable absentee; and the entry of Signor Salandra was the signal for a great scene of enthusiasm and cries of "Long live the War." The Premier immediately moved the election of a committee to consider a Bill conferring upon the Government extraordinary powers in the event of war, and the temper of the House was indicated by the acceptance of the proposal by 367 votes to 54. The Bill itself was subsequently adopted by 407 votes to 74; and it was thus that the Italian people expressed their determination to enter the war against the central Powers. Signor Salandra, in moving the Bill, passed in review the painful sacrifices which Italy had been compelled to make since her unification in the interests of moderation, concord and peace. She had tolerated weakened defences on her frontiers and subordinated her national

aspirations to her love of peace. But the ultimatum addressed by Austria-Hungary to Serbia in July, 1914, without any previous reference to Italy, had broken at one blow the bond which had united Italy to Austria-Hungary. Since that action by Austria-Hungary, Italy had done everything that was possible to restore the *raison d'être* of the alliance, but those efforts had been futile. On the other hand it was impossible for Italy to stand apart in isolation from the events which were taking place in Europe. Under these circumstances the Government had felt itself obliged to seek from Parliament the extraordinary powers which would be necessary in the event of war. He appealed to all parties to reconcile their differences and to unite for the highest of all ideals, *viz.* the prosperity of Italy.

At the conclusion of the Premier's speech there ensued a scene of indescribable enthusiasm, the deputies leaping to their feet and cheering again and again for the King, for the country, and for war. On the following day, May 21, the Bill was passed by the Senate by 262 votes to 2; and on May 23 Italy formally declared war upon Austria.

A most curious feature in the new situation which now arose was that no declaration of war took place between Germany and Italy. Diplomatic negotiations, indeed, were broken off, but no other hostile manifestations were adopted by either nation against the other. It is true that a considerable number of German officers, non-commissioned officers and soldiers, were found in the Austrian ranks opposed to Italy; but each of these individuals was in possession of an official document dispensing them from service in the German Army, and giving them permission to serve as volunteers in the Austrian Army. There was, of course, little object in a declaration of war by either party; for there is no common frontier, and Germany held large economic interests in Italy, besides having a considerable section of her mercantile marine in Italian ports. Moreover, it was thought by some that Germany would be glad to maintain a certain loose contact with one of the Allies as a possible mode of approaching the question of future peace. For the remainder of the year the attention of the Italian people was riveted on the military events, an account of which will be found in Part I. (The European War). A certain sensation was aroused in the latter half of June by an interview accorded by the Pope to M. Louis Latapie, the special correspondent of the *Liberté*. The Pope was asked why the Vatican remained silent in the presence of the numerous fearful crimes committed by the Germans. In reply, he pointed out that every accusation made against the Germans had been replied to, and he had no means of forming an unbiassed judgment on the matter. The Germans were not alone in taking Catholic priests as hostages; they declared with regard to Louvain that their troops had been fired upon, and with regard to the Cathedral at Rheims that it

had been used as an observation station. The neutrality of Belgium had already been violated on a previous occasion; the sinking of the *Lusitania* was no doubt a horrible crime, but on the other hand the blockade of the central Powers by the Allies aimed at reducing to famine millions of innocent people. In Italy, as well as in France, much indignation was aroused by the publication of these views, and an attempted explanation by Cardinal Gasparri a few days later did little to improve the position.

On July 7 the Government published a decree by which they were empowered to take over any factory for the purpose of producing munitions, and an immense transformation of industries soon took place. Skilled men were recalled from the front and in general the example and experience of the other Allies were profited by. General dall'Olio was appointed to a new post as Under-Secretary of State for arms and munitions, and an official committee on the same subject was appointed consisting of the President of the Council and the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Finance, War and Marine. On July 16 Signor Barzilia, President of the Italian Press Association and a well-known public deputy and Irredentist, was appointed Minister without portfolio. Another appointment of interest was that of Signor Gabriele d'Annunzio as official chronicler of the war.

On August 20 Italy declared war upon Turkey. The matters at issue between the two countries were the continued violation of the Treaty of Lausanne by the Ottoman Government and the failure of all Italian diplomatic protests. The refusal of the Ottoman Government to allow the free departure of Italian citizens from Asia Minor had led to an ultimatum by Italy on August 3; and that ultimatum being of no avail the declaration of war ensued. On October 19 Italy declared war once again, this time against Bulgaria which had commenced hostilities against Serbia.

The greatest impetus that the Italian war feeling had yet received was caused by the sinking of the *Ancona* on November 7 between Sardinia and the Tunisian coast, bound for New York; 208 lives were lost, including nine Americans, and a critical situation was raised between America and Austria, for there appeared to be no doubt that the crime was the work of an Austrian submarine.

On December 1 the Italian Parliament again opened, and Baron Sonnino, the Foreign Minister, justified the action of the Government in declaring war upon Bulgaria. The Socialists took up the position that they were bound to oppose any extensions of the war, and that they were prepared to support peace on the basis of a restoration of Belgium. Criticism was also directed against the censorship; and although it was clear that there was still a small minority opposed to the war, the Government declarations were approved after a debate of several days by 405 votes to 48.

On December 6 the Pope conducted in person the secret Consistory. In his Allocution he said that every effort should be made to bring this terrible war to a conclusion, and that result could only be achieved by concessions on both sides. The pacific tone of the Allocution was very unfavourably received in Italy except in ultra-clerical circles.

As in the other belligerent countries, Italy speedily found herself obliged to institute heavy new taxation. An extra tax of 1 per cent., the "war centesimo," was imposed on all incomes liable to direct taxation with certain exemptions. A retrospective war-profits tax on a sliding scale was placed on all excess profits starting from August, 1914. The postal letter rate was raised from $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $2d.$; a tax was placed on advertisements; and the taxes on salt, matches, bicycles and stamps were increased. On December 10 Signor Enrico Ferri delivered an attack upon the Government by opposing the request for funds to cover the expenses of the war for six months, and proposing that the term be reduced to three months. His main object was to ensure that a session of Parliament should be held in the spring; but he then went on to ruin his own position by regretting the entry of Italy into the war. In reply Signor Salandra asked for a deliberate vote of confidence in the Government, and this was carried by 391 votes to 40. The Finance Bill was subsequently voted by secret ballot, the figures being 313 to 56; and on December 13 the Chamber adjourned to March 1.

Although opinion in Italy was not unnaturally less solid in favour of the war policy than it was in France and England, yet there could be no doubt whatever of the determination of the country to prosecute the campaign to its extreme conclusion. At the end of November Italy attached its signature to the Pact of London, by which the signatory countries engaged themselves not to conclude peace separately during the present war. The former signatories to this pact were France, Russia and Great Britain on September 5, 1914, and Japan on October 19, 1915. The announcement of the adhesion of Italy was made by Baron Sonnino, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, at the re-opening of the Chamber of Deputies on December 1, and the announcement was received with loud applause by all but the official Socialists. Thus the end of the year witnessed a most profound agreement and union between the five greater Powers engaged in the war against Germany and her Allies.

CHAPTER II.

GERMANY AND AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

I. GERMANY.

ON New Year's Day, 1915, all Germany knew that the twelve months ahead would bring trials more fiery than any that the country had suffered since the overthrow of Napoleon I. And the German people, still labouring under the delusion that the war had been provoked by their enemies, were prepared to face those trials with the same determination and self-sacrifice which their ancestors had shown in the days of Stein, and in many a more ancient war. It was true that after five months of warfare the German armies had advanced beyond their own frontiers in almost all directions, and that, save for the short-lived Russian advance upon Königsberg, the outlying fortresses, Thorn and Posen, Strassburg and Metz, had never even been threatened; but no mortal blow had been struck against any of the greater hostile States, and those States, by reason of their immensity and owing to their crushing naval superiority, were able to draw upon the resources of all the continents. The policy of encircling Germany, the scheme for which King Edward VII. was alleged to have been mainly responsible, had proved highly successful, but confronted with this retribution, Germans stood united. A year earlier the rift which ran through German political life was so deep and so wide that it could scarcely be paralleled in any other country in Europe. But at the first prospect of a European war the schism had almost completely vanished, and Republicans and Social Democrats had become obedient soldiers of the Emperor. This is not to say that all Germans saw the conflict in the same light, for although united in their actions, the radical differences in political outlook had necessarily persisted after the declaration of war. To the nobles of Brandenburg and East Prussia it was the inevitable struggle with the jealous foes of the prosperous empire of the Hohenzollerns, a struggle that would add fresh lustre to German arms, and might wrench provinces from the inferior peoples. The romantic Chauvinism of university students saw in the war only a new instance of the secular working of racial laws: Teutonic manhood going forth to subdue the decadent Latins and to stem the flood of Slav barbarism. The aggressive merchants, the National Liberals, had visions of a desirable coastline on the North Sea, of a more ample "place in the sun," and of the hoped-for humiliation of the opulent Mistress of the Seas. On the other hand, in the view of democratic Germany, the semi-educated proletariat versed in the latest theories of sociology, the largest if not the most influential peace-party in

Europe, the war was a purely defensive one, waged before all things to protect the civilisation and integrity of Central Europe from the grasp of Muscovite despotism.

Owing to the favourable strategic situations which the German armies had won for themselves, it was not the purely military side of the war which was the chief preoccupation of German statesmen or the main anxiety of the civilian population. The financial strain and the industrial depression were regarded with greater uneasiness, especially in Hamburg, which had become almost a "dead city." It was announced on January 16 that Herr Kühn, the Secretary of State to the German Imperial Treasury, would resign, and that Dr. Helfferich, who had been director of the Deutscher Bank for seven years, would be his successor. Dr. Helfferich was an energetic man, only forty-two years of age, and much was expected of him. The new Secretary lost no time in getting to work. The second German war loan was open for subscriptions from February 27 to March 19, and no limit was fixed for the amount of subscriptions. The loan was issued at 98½, bearing interest at 5 per cent. On March 10 the Reichstag opened to hear a most important speech from the Finance Minister on the Budget and on the new war loan. No financial scheme for the future was laid before the House, as the forthcoming year was, of course, altogether exceptional, and the future depended upon the terms of peace. Dr. Helfferich looked forward to compelling Germany's enemies to make good the material losses due to the war, which, he said, they had wantonly plotted. It was estimated that the current financial year would show a nominal surplus of 1,900,000*l.* The redemption of the Imperial Debt was to be continued, and in the new Budget a sum of 3,400,000*l.* was to be set aside for this purpose, but no provision was made for the redemption of the new war loans, as this, again, was dependent upon the peace conditions. The new Budget was computed to balance at 650,000,000*l.*, a sum four times as great as the largest annual expenditure ever previously approved by the Reichstag. With regard to the cost of the war, the Government asked the House to sanction a new war credit to the amount of 500,000,000*l.*, which it was calculated would be sufficient to finance the war until the autumn. No details of the military and naval expenditure were given. Dr. Helfferich's review of Germany's military and financial position was couched throughout in most optimistic terms. The result of the second war loan was announced on March 20, and it was stated that nearly nine milliard marks had been subscribed. The two war loans together had thus produced about 673,000,000*l.* The war expenditure already authorised by the Reichstag amounted, however, to no less than one milliard sterling, this sum including the "extraordinary" expenditure in the 1914-15 Budget, and the prospective expenditure tabled in the new Budget above described.

The question of the supply of food, and especially of corn, was of no less importance than the financial measures. The original computations made by the Government's statisticians at the beginning of the war turned out to be too optimistic, and when this became known there was quite a starvation-scare among the public, and in January the authorities declared a "Government corn-monopoly." The consumption of bread was thereafter subjected to rigid regulations. Wheat and all other kinds of flour were taken over by the Government as from February 1, and everybody owning supplies above a certain small amount (one double hundredweight) was ordered to send in a notification of his stock by February 5. The farmers were permitted to keep enough corn to feed themselves and their dependants, and also, of course, the quantity required for seed, but beyond this all the stocks in the country became the property of a new State department, which arranged for the distribution of supplies to local authorities. Considerable latitude was allowed these local bodies, as regards the actual methods of supplying the public, but each authority was told the maximum quantity that it might give out within a specified time to the people under its jurisdiction, the maximum varying of course with the population in the different areas. The local authorities were allowed either to give out supplies to bakers, who would then sell their limited quantities in the ordinary way, or else to provide the public with "bread-tickets," by means of which alone bread might be obtained. When the regulations came into force on February 1, each person was allowed two kilograms of bread per week, but in March even this small quota was further reduced to a slight extent. It was stated that the shortage which became apparent in January had been caused by the extravagant use of corn for fodder during the last four months of 1914. The food supply caused Germans considerable anxiety during the first few months of the year, and much bitterness was felt towards England on account of what was styled the "starvation-war," but as the harvest approached it was seen that though the country might suffer from scarcity there was no danger of actual famine.

Public discussion of the conduct and aims of the war, and of prospective peace terms was supposed to be confined within strict limits, but in practice the authorities did not enforce this regulation rigorously, and fairly free discussion upon these subjects took place, both in the newspapers and elsewhere. Journals were indeed suspended from time to time. Thus after the sinking of the *Lusitania*, and during the correspondence with America upon that incident, the Chauvinistic *Deutsche Tageszeitung* was temporarily suppressed for publishing articles calculated to aggravate the tension with the United States. On the other hand, the Socialist *Vorwärts* was suspended at about the same time for printing a manifesto in favour of peace.

Yet on the whole discussion was, as already stated, fairly free, and a wide divergence of opinion with regard to peace terms became apparent. On one point, indeed, all schools of thought were agreed. They all showed much confidence in the ultimate triumph of German arms, and their assurance naturally grew still greater after the victories in Galicia in the spring. They differed, however, in their ideas of the use which it would be desirable for Germany to make of her victory. The newspapers and speakers and organisations representing the militarist school, the school of reactionaries who were weak in the Reichstag and still weaker in the electorate, but who possessed much influence among the nobility and at Court, were strongly in favour of a policy of territorial conquest, in the West, in the East, and if practicable beyond the seas. For years before the war these extremists had not even troubled to pretend that they were opposed to wars of conquest. Thus the Defence League and certain Conservative and Agrarian organisations declared that extensions of territory would be necessary and desirable.

Moreover, the desire for annexation was not confined to the pure militarists, but had spread to the great mass of non-Socialist Germans, who would by no means have made themselves party to a war of sheer aggression which they had recognised as such. The line of reasoning among this large section of the public was this. The German Government had not been responsible for the war. The catastrophe had been caused either by a deliberate plot on the part of the Triple Entente, or else, at the very best, by the obstinate adherence of those hostile Powers to their utterly unreasonable demands. Hence Germany would be morally justified in exacting "compensation" for the enormous sacrifices which she had been compelled to make in the war that had been forced upon her; and for this reason it would be reasonable and legitimate to annex provinces. The seizure of territory was regarded in the light of enforcing the payment of damages to the supposed injured and innocent party. The Radicals took little or no part in the active agitations in favour of annexations, but the ideas just described gained very wide currency among the general public, and it became clear that, apart from the Social Democrats, no serious opposition would be expressed in Germany to a policy of territorial acquisition, if the German Government decided to adopt that policy.

A third section of opinion was formed by the Socialists, who, it should be remembered, included a third of the nation. The great majority of the Socialists held that the German and Austro-Hungarian Governments had been much less to blame for the war than the Triple Entente Governments, but they were opposed to all ideas of conquest, and in particular to the retention of Belgium, on the ground that a permanent peace could only be secured by the friendly co-operation of all nations, and that this

happy state of things could not be expected to arise if one nation took another people's land. Finally, there existed a small minority of Socialists who held that the German Government, rather than Germany's enemies, were responsible for the war; and these extreme Socialists were violently hostile to the Emperor and all the policies with which his name was associated. Among this last group, a certain Herr Karl Liebknecht, a member of the Reichstag, and the members of the German Humanity League were prominent.

Important speeches were delivered in the Prussian Diet at the beginning of March, when the Budget for that kingdom was under consideration. The estimated revenue for the year ending March 31, 1916 was 240,850,000*l.* and the estimated expenditure 241,900,000*l.* Dr. Lentze, the Prussian Finance Minister, said that the economic crisis which threatened the country earlier in the war had been quickly surmounted, and there had been no need for any moratorium. This, he said, was due to the ingenious system of credit established by the Imperial Bank and to the hearty co-operation of the people at large. The splendid achievements of the German Army and Navy had also served to maintain confidence. The economic condition of Germany was such that the country could face the war situation with equanimity for a long time to come. There were large supplies of all kinds of metals in the country. The effects of the war on the Prussian Budget of 1914-15 had been less serious than had been anticipated. The receipts from the carriage of merchandise over the State railways had been only 25 per cent. lower than in the preceding year. The work of the new Government department charged with the duty of buying and storing corn was of unprecedented importance. Great Britain must not be allowed to starve Germany. She must not be permitted to impose, by means of famine, harsh peace terms that she was powerless to enforce by arms. The economic situation was improving, and a splendid spirit of determination animated the German soldiers and sailors. Germans had every reason to anticipate victory. Prussia and the German Empire would issue from this war even stronger and more unassailable than before. And if, concluded the Minister, the divergencies of opinion upon questions of internal politics had then lost their old bitterness, Germany would have profited greatly from the conflict, notwithstanding the terrible loss of precious blood.

Herr Hirsch, one of the Socialist members, then stated that his party could not fall in with the Government's policy, but demanded reform in electoral and other matters. All the peoples involved in the war desired peace, and he hoped the authorities would hear their cry. The Polish and Danish Nationalists abstained from voting on the Budget, but it was adopted in the Upper House without discussion, and passed on March 15.

In the prolonged negotiations between Austria-Hungary and Italy which took place in the spring, the German Government played an important part. Germany's status in the matter was that of the senior partner in the Triple Alliance, and Germany was well fitted to act as mediator between the two countries by reason of the fact that whereas Italy and Austria-Hungary, though allies, were traditional enemies, a certain historic friendship existed between Italy and Prussia. As was only to be expected, the Imperial Government attached much importance to the possibility of hostile action on the part of Italy, and no less a personage than Prince Bülow, ex-Chancellor of the German Empire, was sent to Rome as a special envoy, and for weeks before the final rupture the conduct of the negotiations was, on the side of the Central Empires, mainly in the hands of that famous noble. From the time of the outbreak of war with the Triple Entente, the German censorship had been very careful not to allow the newspapers to express sentiments which might aggravate the relations between Germany and Italy, although in private conversation Germans were ready enough at times to pour abuse upon Italy for what they regarded as the treachery and cowardice shown by that country in deserting her allies in the hour of danger. Up till the end of April it was generally hoped and expected in Germany that the new war would be averted, great trust being put in the political influence of Signor Giolitti, the leading Italian "neutralist." Hopes sank, however, on May 4, when Italy denounced the Triple Alliance. Nevertheless, Prince Bülow and the German Government continued their efforts, and were able to induce Austria-Hungary to offer very substantial concessions as the price of continued neutrality on the part of Italy. Speaking in the Reichstag on May 18, Herr von Bethmann-Hollweg, the Imperial Chancellor, announced that those concessions were as follows:—

1. The part of Tirol inhabited by Italians to be ceded to Italy.
2. Also the western bank of the Isonzo, in so far as the population is purely Italian, and the town of Gradisca.
3. Trieste to be made an imperial free city, receiving an administration ensuring an Italian character to the city, and to have an Italian university.
4. The recognition of Italian sovereignty over Avlona, and the sphere of interests belonging thereto.
5. Austria-Hungary declares her political disinterestedness regarding Albania.
6. Austria-Hungary grants an amnesty for political and military criminals who are natives of the ceded territories.
7. Austria-Hungary, after the conclusion of the agreement, to give a solemn declaration concerning the concessions.
8. Mixed committees for the regulation of details of the concessions to be appointed.

9. After the conclusion of the agreement, Austro-Hungarian soldiers, natives of the ceded territories, shall not further participate in the war.

And there were also certain minor concessions. The Chancellor added that in agreement with the Austro-Hungarian Government, Germany had undertaken "to give a full guarantee for the loyal fulfilment of these offers." The remainder of the speech struck a somewhat pessimistic note, and it is clear that the speaker had not very much hope that war would be avoided. After stating that the issue of peace or war now rested with the Italian Parliament and people, the Chancellor continued :—

"But whatever the decision of Italy may be, we, together with Austria-Hungary, have done all within the bounds of possibility to support the alliance, which was firmly rooted among the German people and brought profit and good to the three Empires. If the alliance be torn by one of the three partners, we shall know, together with the other partner, how to meet the new danger with dauntless and confident courage."

Italy declared war on Austria-Hungary on May 23, and on the 28th Herr von Bethmann-Hollweg delivered another speech in the Reichstag which is only less historic than his orations at the time of the outbreak of war with the Triple Entente :—

"Italy has now inscribed in the book of the world's history, in letters of blood which will never fade, her violation of faith. I believe Machiavelli once said that a war which is necessary is also just. From this sober, practical standpoint, which leaves out of account all moral considerations, has this war been necessary? Is it not, indeed, utterly mad?"

"Nobody threatened Italy—neither Austria-Hungary nor Germany. Whether the Triple Entente were content with blandishments alone, history will show later. Without a drop of blood flowing, without the life of a single Italian being endangered, Italy could have secured the long list of concessions which I recently read to this House, territory in the Tirol and on the Isonzo as far as the Italian speech is heard, satisfaction of the national aspirations in Trieste, a free hand in Albania, and the valuable port of Avlona. Why have they not taken it? *Do they perchance wish to conquer the German Tirol? Hands off!*"

This speech was received with loud applause.

The Chancellor went on to allege that the reason why Italy had not accepted the Austrian offers was that the Italian Government, whilst they still admitted the existence of the Triple Alliance, had become so deeply entangled with the Triple Entente that they could not break free. He said further that the war had been brought about against the real wishes of the majority of the Italian nation, and that the mob, "roused to frenzy by unscrupulous war-instigators, had threatened the King with revolution and all moderate men with murder if they did not join in the

war delirium." Herr von Bethmann-Hollweg concluded a long speech by saying:—

"We shall endure this new storm. From month to month we grow more intimate with our ally. From the Pilica to the Bukovina for months we tenaciously withstood, with our Austro-Hungarian comrades, the gigantic superiority of the enemy. Then we victoriously advanced. So will our new enemies perish, through the spirit, loyalty, friendship, and bravery of the Central Powers."

The anger against Italy on account of that country's neutrality, which had long been privately expressed, naturally broke out openly after the final rupture of negotiations, and the new war was greeted almost with enthusiasm in Bavaria, which, unlike Prussia, shared to some extent Austria's traditional enmity of Italy, having fought, of course, on the Austrian side in the war of 1866. Curiously enough, war was not formally declared between Italy and Germany, although the German Ambassador withdrew from Rome.

The sinking of the *Lusitania* on May 7 naturally attracted a great deal of attention in Germany. By a large part of the nation and especially by the Conservative newspapers, the occurrence was hailed as a brilliant naval feat, and German militarists appeared to be incapable of comprehending the horror with which the destruction of the liner was viewed in the Entente and neutral countries. Radical newspapers, such as the *Berliner Tageblatt*, regarded the loss of civilian lives as terrible and unfortunate, but held that the act was, in the circumstances, within the bounds of legitimate warfare. The Socialist paper *Vorwärts* passed over the event without any comment, a silence which obviously implied disapproval. It should be said that it was widely believed in Germany that the vessel was not only carrying contraband of war (which of course was true), but was also armed with guns as an "auxiliary cruiser," this being the story spread by the German Government.

The loss of life among the American passengers of the *Lusitania* led to a controversy with the United States. On May 15 the United States Government sent Germany a strongly worded note complaining of the actions of German submarines in sinking the *Lusitania*, the American ship *Gulflight* (on May 1), and other vessels in which America had an interest. The American Government held that it was a "practical impossibility" to use submarines to prey upon an enemy's mercantile marine without breaking the international laws and rules of humanity previously accepted by all nations. The Foreign Minister, Herr von Jagow, replied to this American note on May 31. The German communication stated that the *Lusitania* could not be regarded as an ordinary unarmed merchantman. She was built to serve not only as a passenger steamer but as an auxiliary cruiser in the British

Navy. The Government claimed that the *Lusitania*, like most of the larger vessels in the British merchant service at this time, was armed. According to information received in Berlin the vessel "had cannon on board, which were mounted and concealed under the deck." She also carried numerous cases of ammunition. The note went on to blame the Cunard Company for attempting "to use the lives of American citizens as a protection for the ammunition on board," and stated further that the rapid sinking of the liner was due to the fact that the torpedo in exploding itself caused the ammunition in the ship's hold to explode also. Apart from this occurrence the passengers would, it was claimed, have had ample time to escape with their lives. The note ended by reminding the United States Government that the German submarine blockade was only instituted in retaliation against the British methods of sea-warfare, which (according to the German view) were in many respects unlawful.

America eventually succeeded in compelling Germany to pay somewhat greater heed to the rights of neutrals upon the high seas; but through the destruction of very many of the German submarines by the British Navy the matter lost its practical importance before many months had passed.

At the end of May the Imperial Government published a White Book dealing with the alleged atrocities by the Belgian civilian population during the brief warfare in Belgium during the previous year, this publication being in the nature of a reply to the accounts of German atrocities stated to have been committed at the same time. The White Book stated that Belgian civilians shot German soldiers by surprise, maimed the wounded, and murdered at night officers and men who had been billeted in their houses. Women and even children were said to have taken part in these outrages.

On June 7 the King of Bavaria delivered a speech before the members of the "Kanalverein" (Canal Union) which caused a great sensation throughout the country and proved that this monarch agreed with the extreme militarist party who were demanding annexation of territory not only in the East but in the West. The King said:—

"When the English declared war I said: 'I am glad, because now we can settle accounts with our enemies, and because now at last we may hope to get more favourable communication with the sea for Central and South Germany.' Ten months have elapsed and much precious blood has been shed, but it will not have been shed in vain. The strengthening of the German Empire, and its extension beyond its frontiers as far as this is necessary in order to secure us against future attacks, that will be the fruit of this war."

King Ludwig's declaration, which was of course appropriate to a meeting of the Kanalverein, was greeted with satisfaction

amongst Conservatives and National Liberals, but was criticised by the Radical newspapers, and was angrily denounced by Socialists. The central organ of the Social Democrats, the *Vorwärts*, stated that "the aims proclaimed by the King of Bavaria are the direct opposite of those which German Socialists hope to achieve as the result of the war."

The course of events during the summer caused the Socialists to alter in a marked manner their attitude towards the war. As has been already stated, the Socialists, apart from a minute minority of extremists, supported the war as a defensive necessity, but disclaimed all idea of territorial conquests. And to Social Democrats Russia was the chief enemy. Now during the first nine months of the war, the struggle was, in the eyes of German Democrats, entirely a defensive one. The Czar's troops were in effective occupation of a third of Austria, and they had made incursions far into German territory. But after Field-Marshal von Mackensen's decisive victories over the Muscovites in May, the aspect of matters was altogether changed. The invaders had been driven headlong out of Central Europe, and hundreds of captured guns and hundreds of thousands of unkempt prisoners constituted visible proof that the Slav peril, if not destroyed, had been at least temporarily removed. Germans could breathe more freely; their homes were safe. This, together with the Conservative demands for annexations, had an immediate effect upon the Socialists. And on June 23 the National Executive of the Social Democratic Party of Germany issued a manifesto calling upon the Imperial Government to open peace negotiations. The manifesto was published in *Vorwärts*, which was thereupon temporarily suppressed by the authorities on the ground that "the censorship on the discussion of the aims of the war still existed."

The manifesto opened by deploring the fearful sum of human suffering which had been caused by the eleven months of warfare. Socialists, it was claimed, had for years seen the terrible storm approaching, and had striven incessantly to avert it by distributing millions of pamphlets and by holding peace conferences. But when the Cossacks had crossed the frontier, and had begun to ravage the German land, Socialists had not been behind other Germans in rushing to arms. In East Prussia, 400,000 people had fled as refugees, 200,000 homes had been plundered or devastated, 1,620¹ civilians had been murdered, and thousands of others had been wounded or carried off into captivity. Now, however, East Prussia had been liberated. Various speeches of Socialists in the Reichstag were then quoted as proof that the party had never favoured a war of conquest. It was stated that

¹ This figure is very precise, and it is likely enough that 1,620 civilians really were killed by the Russians in East Prussia. But probably very few were either legally or morally "murdered." The civilians in Germany, Belgium and Serbia who resisted the invading armies laid themselves open to a terrible vengeance.

the Executive of the party had attempted to negotiate with the sister parties in other belligerent countries in order to co-operate for the re-establishment of peace. They had also entered into communication with Socialists in neutral countries. These efforts had, however, failed thus far, chiefly owing to the attitude of French Socialists. The document went on to accuse the Socialist Party of France of treachery to the principles of Internationalism, on the ground that some members of that party had entered the French Ministry, a Government allied with the Czar, and also because the party favoured a fight to a finish. British Socialists had been somewhat less untrue to their principles. The Socialist Party in the German Parliament were unanimously opposed to any annexations of foreign territory, and condemned the Imperialist proposals recently put forward by certain politicians. "The People desire no annexations; the People want Peace." The manifesto went on to say that unless the war was to drag on indefinitely, one of the belligerent Powers must make a definite move for peace. Germany, although she had been attacked by an overwhelmingly powerful coalition of empires, had yet succeeded in defeating the plans of the aggressors. It was therefore meet and right that the German Government should now attempt to open negotiations. The document closed by calling upon the Government, in the name of humanity and civilisation, to express their willingness to negotiate, and adjured Socialists in other belligerent countries to make the same demand upon their respective Governments.

As was only to be expected this manifesto was severely criticised in the Conservative and National Liberal Press.

In August the Socialist party issued another statement explaining further the war-aims of the party. This statement reiterated the Socialists' condemnation of annexations by Germany, but then proceeded to lay down conditions, some of which would have been regarded as unacceptable by the majority of people in France and Great Britain. The more important of these conditions were: (1) the integrity of the German Empire, including the renunciation by France of her scheme to re-annex Alsace-Lorraine; (2) the freedom of the seas; (3) the protection of the world's peace by the development of international arbitration; (4) the integrity of Austria-Hungary and Turkey; and (5) progress towards international free trade. The importance of this manifesto for Great Britain lay chiefly in the fact that it proved that all Germans were united on the question of the "freedom of the seas." This expression, as understood in Germany and the United States, implied the freedom of a belligerent's merchantmen from liability to capture in time of war, that is, the abolition of prize-taking at sea. This condition would of course have involved the destruction to a large extent of the offensive power of the British Navy and could not therefore be tolerated for a

moment; no such action as the blockade of Germany, which continued throughout 1915, would have been possible if the laws of maritime warfare had been amended in the manner Germany desired. For years before the war it had been a cause of irritation in Germany that the country's large volume of ocean-borne trade existed "on sufferance," that is, that it was always at the mercy of the predominant naval Power.

After being adjourned since the end of May the Reichstag was opened for another short session on August 19, and the Chancellor made a long speech on that day, giving a general review of the political situation. He began by praising the valour of the German troops who had successfully withstood all the attacks of the French and the Italians and in the East had conquered Warsaw and great territories of the Russian Empire. He then thanked the Pope and the Dutch Government for their work for humanity, in the matter of the exchange of disabled prisoners of war and in other directions. Then the Chancellor proceeded to a lengthy attack on Great Britain. For England, which had conquered the Boer Republics and had unlawfully seized Egypt, and had divided Persia with Russia, to pretend that she was fighting for the liberty of small nations was, he declared, nothing but hypocrisy. The countries of the Triple Entente had been much more bellicose than Germany.

"There are persons who accuse me of political shortsightedness because I attempted on many occasions to arrange an agreement with England. I thank God that I did do this. It is now definitely proved that the disaster of this destructive world-war would never have occurred if a straightforward understanding with England, aiming at a stable peace, had been concluded. If such an understanding between England and Germany had existed, who in Europe would have thought of making war?"

Proceeding, the Chancellor dealt with Lord Haldane's visit to Berlin in 1912, and in reference to Lord Haldane's fear that if an Anglo-German agreement were reached, Germany would take the opportunity to attack and crush France, he said: "If we had been planning burglarious assaults upon our neighbours, we had excellent opportunities of proving our warlike proclivities during the South African and Russo-Japanese Wars." After Lord Haldane's departure, Germany proposed a treaty of unconditional neutrality between the two Powers, but this England refused. Then the German Government proposed a treaty of neutrality limited to wars in which the country concerned "could not be described as the aggressor." This also was rejected by Great Britain, which desired to substitute a mere promise that England would not make an unprovoked attack upon Germany, nor join any combination of Powers which had that purpose in view. Germany was prepared to accept that declaration provided a clause were added stating that "England therefore will, of course,

observe benevolent neutrality should war be forced upon Germany." Sir Edward Grey refused to append this clause on the ground that it might disturb the British friendship with "other Powers." That refusal terminated the negotiations, said Herr von Bethmann-Hollweg:—

"England thought it a sign of great goodwill, worthy to be expressed in the form of a solemn treaty, that she would not attack us without any reason, but nevertheless reserved for herself a free hand in the event of her friends desiring to do so."

The speaker then referred to Mr. Asquith's speech at Cardiff on October 2, 1914, when, he said, the English Premier had misled the British public in regard to the negotiations in 1912 by only mentioning the original German proposal for unconditional neutrality, and by suppressing the subsequent negotiations on the German suggestions of conditional neutrality. The Chancellor then referred to the ill-fated negotiations in July and August, 1914, and spoke sympathetically of Poland which had now been "liberated from the Russian yoke." After drawing a picture of a future Europe with Germany as the shield of its peace and with the small Teutonic and Balkan nations living in blissful security, the speaker concluded: "We do not hate the peoples who have been forced into the war by their Governments. We shall hold out until those peoples demand peace from those who are really guilty, until the way is clear for the establishment of a new Europe, freed from French machinations, from Muscovite lust of conquest, and from English guardianship."

The disclosures about the Anglo-German negotiations of 1912 made in this speech are of great historical interest, and a prolonged discussion on the matter took place in the German and English newspapers. The difference between the British and the last German proposal appears on the face of the matter to be scarcely more than verbal, since a promise not to join a combination of Powers that aimed at aggression against Germany, would seem to have involved as a natural corollary a willingness to remain neutral in the event of any such act of aggression being committed, but the British Government were clearly anxious to avoid the actual word "neutrality." The breakdown of these negotiations led to the abandonment of the associated discussion on the possibility of a naval agreement between the two countries.

The business before the Reichstag during the brief August session was mainly connected with finance. Further credits to the amount of 500,000,000*l.* were asked for by the Government, and the Chancellor and the Finance Minister had no difficulty in inducing the House to agree to this proposal. The Socialist party voted for the credits. This action did not imply that the Socialists were unanimously in favour of the motion. According to the rules of the Socialist party, a private meeting of

the party had to be held before the meeting of the whole Reichstag, in order to decide what attitude the party should adopt in the House, and at this private meeting a minority of thirty-six voted against agreeing to the Government's request. It would have been contrary to the party's discipline for this minority to have voted in the Reichstag against the wishes of their own Socialist majority (though one member, Herr Leibknecht, did do this), and hence most of the minority abstained from voting on the parliamentary motion. This vote brought the German expenditure on the war up to the enormous sum of 1,500,000,000*l.* sterling.

The Reichstag also made arrangements for a third war loan, and this was open for subscriptions from September 4 to September 22. The loan was issued at 99 and was to bear interest at 5 per cent. The Reichstag adjourned on August 27 until the end of November. According to the Government's statements the subscriptions to the third loan amounted to over 608,000,000*l.* sterling, which exceeded even the result of the second British war loan.

During September, October and November the attention of politicians, amateur and otherwise, was largely taken up with the problems that might be expected to arise after the war. One of the foremost of these problems was the question of the future relations between Germany and Austria-Hungary. It was generally agreed that those relations ought to become still more intimate than they were before the war. In order to realise how Germans and most Austrians approached this subject it must be remembered that the core of Austria, the German-speaking part of the country as distinct from the outer Slavonic provinces, is historically and ethnographically as much a part of Germany as any component State of the new German Empire. In a sense German unity was not completely achieved in 1871. The way was thus smooth for a new idea of a highly ambitious character. This conception was that the States of Central Europe should be welded together into a single group, a syndication of nations—something more than an alliance, though less than an actual federation. The essential unity of the interests and civilisation of the German Empire and German-Austria having been made apparent by the war, the idea of some sort of unity was extended, through German-Austria's political connexion with the neighbouring Slavs and Magyars, to all the peoples of Central Europe. "Middle Europe" was to be not a mere geographical expression, but a political entity. Moreover, these schemes were not discussed in irresponsible quarters only; the first steps towards closer union, at least in the economic sphere, were sanctioned by official circles. The German and Austro-Hungarian Governments carried on negotiations aiming at a common trade policy after the war, the central idea of which appeared to be that each empire should have

a large fiscal preference in the other's markets, as compared with all other countries.

The Reichstag met again at the end of November and was in session for about three weeks. The most important debate took place on December 9. The Chancellor made a long speech reviewing the military situation, and arraigning Great Britain and France for their violation of Greek neutrality. On the same day there was a formal interpellation by the Socialists in regard to peace. This was introduced by Herr Scheidemann and was worded as follows: "Is the Imperial Chancellor ready to give information as to the conditions under which he is disposed to enter into peace negotiations?" In reply Herr von Bethmann-Hollweg avoided mentioning any specific peace terms, but stated that the longer the Entente countries persisted in their useless struggle the more severe would be the terms that the Central Powers would finally impose upon them.

On December 14 Dr. Helfferich made a speech in asking for further war credits to the amount of 500,000,000*l.*, thus bringing up the total war credits to the huge sum of 2,000,000,000*l.* sterling. He said, however, that it would not be necessary to use this fourth half milliard until the early spring of 1916. It will be remembered that the three German war loans amounted in the aggregate to about 1,280,000,000*l.*, so that even the third half milliard had not been covered by the subscriptions. A few days later the new war credits were passed, but on this occasion the "anti-war" minority of the Socialists voted against the credits, not only in the party session, but openly in the Reichstag. The minority, which was subsequently censured by the Social Democratic party for breaking the party discipline (the nature of which has been already explained), consisted of nineteen members, including Herren Haase, Bernstein, and Liebknecht.

Thus ended a year the records of which will always be full of dramatic interest to historians. The multitudinous events of the twelve months were pregnant with influence on the course of Europe's history, though at the end of the year no man could say with certainty what that influence would prove to be. But if it be asked wherein lay the chief effect of the political storm on the lives of the German people, there can be no doubt of the answer. The terror of the Czar's millions had passed away, the worst fears of the British naval blockade had not been realised. The German Army had certainly not failed to make good its claim to be the most powerful Army in the world. But 600,000 German men lay dead, and hundreds of thousands lived only as pitiable wrecks of humanity. Over all the land reigned Death. Not until a generation had passed away could the German people know again the human happiness which was theirs in June, 1914.

II. AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Important though the issues of the great war were to Germany, they were still more vital to that country's southern ally. The very existence of the Austro-Hungarian Empire as a Great Power was at stake. Russia's threatened annexation of Austrian Poland, Serbia's claims to the large Yugoslav provinces of Austria and of Hungary, the imminent danger that Italy and Rumania might attempt to seize the territories inhabited by populations of their respective nationalities, the simmering of a revolutionary movement in Bohemia: all these perils bid fair at the beginning of the year to reduce the Dual Monarchy to the position of a third-rate Power of a purely German and Magyar character. Only the fringe of Hungary had been touched by war, but a third of Austria had been swept by the hostile armies, and cruel atrocities were alleged to have been committed by the invaders. Lemberg had long been lost, and Czernowitz, the capital of Bukovina, changed hands four times in the first nine months of the war; and although in January the Russians had recoiled from Cracow, they were strongly entrenched along the Dunajec, not sixty miles distant. Moreover Austria-Hungary was a poorer country than Germany, and the financial strain upon her was therefore extremely severe, and whereas in Germany the people were virtually unanimous in supporting the war, in the Habsburg dominions there were considerable minorities who were either apathetic or actively disaffected. On the other hand, many sections of the people, especially among the Magyars, were organising a vigorous defence, and Austrians had much confidence in the strength of Germany. Indeed in the spring, when Italy declared war against her former ally, and yet, with the assistance of large bodies of German troops, the Russians were driven out of Przemysl and Lemberg, the feeling towards Germany in many Viennese circles was of the very warmest description. From the Austrian point of view, Germany had played the part of a faithful ally, and there was a natural disinclination to scrutinise too closely the methods of such a useful friend.

The first event of the year was the resignation of Count Berchtold, Minister of Foreign Affairs, which took place early in January. The Count had held the position of Foreign Minister for nearly three years, and his name will always be connected with the fatal negotiations with Serbia and Russia in July, 1914. He was succeeded by Baron Stephan Burian, a Hungarian of Slovak extraction, who was Hungarian Minister to the King's Court, and had at one time been Minister of the Common Finance Department of Austria-Hungary. Negotiations with Italy were proceeding at this time, relating to that country's demand for territorial concessions, and it was believed that Baron Burian was more disposed than his predecessor had been to make the sacrifices necessary to obtain a continuance of Italian neutrality.

It has been already explained that in Germany, although virtually the whole nation supported the war, the different political parties were by no means agreed about the ultimate aims which ought to be pursued. In Austria-Hungary also there was much diversity of opinion upon the same subject, and here too the differences of opinion followed generally the lines of cleavage between political parties, which in the Dual Monarchy were to a great extent based upon nationality. In Austria-Hungary, however, there was also, as already stated, a considerable amount of actual opposition to the war, which in the case of some of the Slavonic elements of the population developed into virulent if not very effective sedition. Of the two leading nationalities, the most ardent and the most Chauvinistic supporters of the war were to be found rather among the Magyars than among the Germans. In the past the Magyars had been fully as much responsible as the German-Austrians for various tyrannical acts against the Yugoslav peoples, and the feud with Serbia was quite as much Hungary's quarrel as Austria's. Count Tisza, the Hungarian Premier, was one of the strongest personalities in the Empire, and he was highly esteemed both by his own King and by the German Emperor. He not only ruled Hungary with a firm hand, but had a great influence over the general policy of the Dual Monarchy—a greater influence, indeed, than that possessed by the Austrian Prime Minister, Count Stürgkh. Furthermore, there was little Socialism among the Magyars, whereas amongst the Germans there were large numbers of Social Democrats, and the latter adopted the same attitude towards the war as that taken up by their comrades within the Hohenzollern Empire; that is, they believed the war necessary in national self-defence, but were opposed to all aggressive designs in the event of victory. It is worth mentioning, however, that there was much less Anglophobia in Hungary than in either Austria or Germany; many Magyars regarded the war with Great Britain merely in the light of a regrettable accident.

No general description would fit the sentiments of the Slavonic inhabitants of the Empire as a whole. The Slavs of Europe no more constitute a single nationality than the Teutonic or the Romansch peoples, and most of the distinct Slav nationalities were represented in the warring Empire of Francis Joseph. In Galicia the Poles were of course the dominant nationality, numerically, socially, and politically; and these Galician Poles were, for obvious historical reasons, strongly Pro-Austrian (see A.R., 1914, p. 341), which from the Polish point of view was, however, not by any means the same thing as being Pro-Prussian.¹ The Vienna Government, unlike the Governments of Berlin and St. Petersburg (Petrograd), had in the past granted its Polish

¹ The Poles had, of course, but little direct political relationship with the States of the German Empire other than Prussia.

subjects a very large measure of liberty, political and otherwise, and it was now reaping its reward. Many Russian Poles fled the Czar's dominions and enrolled under the Austrian banners.

The Ruthenians (Little Russians) of Galicia and Bukovina were not in the same position. Some of them were Russophil in sentiment and gave active assistance to the Czar's armies during the Russian conquest and occupation of the two provinces. Others, however, remained loyal, and with a view to securing their allegiance the Austrians put forward early in the war a grandiose scheme of establishing an autonomous Little Russian State, extending as far as Kiev. This plan was originally welcomed with wild enthusiasm by the Ruthenian Nationalists, and they hailed the Austro-Hungarian and German troops as armies of liberation, but during the reverses of the campaign their hopes were naturally somewhat damped.

The Czechs, Moravians, and Slovaks were less immediately concerned in the issues of the war than the other Slav nationalities, and their attitude was mainly one of apathy. There were a number of mutinies in Bohemian regiments, and nothing occurred to alter the bitter antipathy of the Czech Nationalists towards everything German.

It was, however, among the Southern Slavs, or Yugoslavs, of the Monarchy that the greatest amount of disaffection existed. Many of these had for years desired to be united to their independent brethren in Serbia and Montenegro, and after the outbreak of war the cause of these revolutionaries aroused much interest in France and England. The following were the Yugoslav provinces and districts of the Dual Monarchy: Bosnia-Herzegovina, Dalmatia, Croatia-Slavonia, and Carniola; also the greater part of Istria and the greater part of Görz and Gradisca, where the Slavs touched the "Italian" districts; also a small part of Carinthia and a small portion of Styria, where the territory of the Slavs marched with that of the Germans; and finally the western part of the Banat, where they came in contact with the Magyars and the Rumanian section of the Hungarian population. The total population of this great Yugoslav region was just under 7,000,000, and although the peoples of the different districts were known under different names—Serbians, Croats, Morlachs, Slovenes—they were from a linguistic and racial point of view closely akin, and constituted a single Yugoslav nationality. They were, however, divided in religion. The great majority were Roman Catholics, the number of adherents of the Orthodox Greek Church not reaching 2,000,000. It was, as might have been expected, amongst the Orthodox Greek population that the pro-Serbian agitation had found most favour, and it had had much less success among the Roman Catholics. Many of the latter were actively loyal, and were largely influenced by the fact that the murdered Arch-Duke Francis Ferdinand had been in many respects the champion of

the Roman Catholic South Slavs. Moreover, in the province which was the most immediate object of Serbian ambitions, to wit Bosnia-Herzegovina, a third of the population were Mohammedan, and the sympathies of these Moslems were naturally with Vienna and Constantinople.

The Jugoslavs were thus divided in their political hopes, but in what proportions it is impossible, in the absence of a plebiscite, to say. It is certain, however, that the revolutionaries had a considerable following. Owing to the strength of the Austro-Hungarian Army and the severity of martial law, the agitation was forced underground or driven abroad, but the movement was supported by many leading Jugoslavs, and even persons who had held Austrian official positions did not hesitate to join the rebels. Thus a certain Dr. A. Trumbitch, who had been leader of the majority in the provincial legislature of Dalmatia, went to England and endeavoured to enlighten the British public on the aims of these pro-Serbian subjects of the Emperor-King, and what was called the "Southern Slav Committee" carried on an active agitation in London.

Little need be said about the Romansch subjects of the Dual Monarchy. It was notorious that a large proportion of the population of the very small Italian districts of Austria had long been discontented with the political *status quo* and desired union with Italy, but disaffection was much less rife among the far larger number of Rumanians who dwelt in Hungary and Bukovina.

Throughout the first five months of the year the attitude of Italy was the chief pre-occupation of the Austro-Hungarian Foreign Office. Deeply as the Austrians resented the cold neutrality of Italy, a neutrality which many of them regarded as a violation of the Triple Alliance Treaty, the Austrian Emperor and Austrian statesmen allowed themselves to be persuaded by their German allies and their Hungarian colleagues into offering important territorial concessions to Italy, in order to buy off that country's threatened hostility. Indeed, the Austro-Hungarian Government agreed to cede almost the whole of the small Italian-speaking territory of Austria, and the full list of the proposed concessions was read to the Reichstag by the German Chancellor on May 18. (See Germany.) These offers met virtually all the Italian demands, which were formally specified by Baron Sonnino, the Italian Foreign Minister, on April 8. The only demand of any importance to which Baron Burian refused to accede was the request that Austria should cede to Italy certain of the islands along the Dalmatian coast—Lissa, Lesina, Curzola, Lagosta, Cazza, and Meleda. The province of Dalmatia, with its islands, lay as already stated within the Slavonic, not within the Italian, portion of the Dual Monarchy. The militant party in Italy believed, however, that Italy had just claims to Dalmatia, and at

the time of the Italian intervention in the war it was rumoured, and was widely believed in Serbia and elsewhere, that the Triple Entente had promised Italy the northern half, or even the whole, of Dalmatia, in the event of victory over the Central Empires. The rumour caused much irritation in Serbia, where Dalmatia was regarded as part of the Yugoslav domain. But whatever the cause may have been, the negotiations failed, and Italy denounced the Triple Alliance on May 4, and declared war on Austria-Hungary on May 23. (See Italy.)

On May 21 the Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister replied by means of a note given to the Italian Ambassador in Vienna to the Italian statement of May 4. This note stated that the Vienna Government could not admit the claim of Italy to freedom of action, nor that the Triple Alliance was in any sense nullified, because the Italian statement to that effect was altogether contrary to the manner in which the pact was entered into on December 5, 1912, when Italy agreed to adhere to a notice of twelve months being given to withdraw from the Treaty. A few days later, on May 27, the Austro-Hungarian Foreign Office issued a White Paper, enlarging upon the grievances against Italy, and also publishing three clauses of the Triple Alliance. The Triple Alliance was generally believed to have consisted in the first instance of distinct agreements between Germany and Austria-Hungary, between Germany and Italy and between Austria-Hungary and Italy (the terms of the Austro-German Treaty having been published), but however that may have been, it was now made clear that the three allies had been united in a single pact since December, 1912, the date of the last renewal of the Alliance. Clauses III. and IV. read as follows:—

Clause III. In case one or two of the high contracting parties, without direct provocation on their part, should be attacked by one or more Great Powers not signatory of the present Treaty, and should become involved in a war with them, the *casus fœderis* would arise simultaneously for all the high contracting parties.

Clause IV. In case a Great Power not signatory of the present Treaty should threaten the State security of one of the high contracting parties, and in case the threatened party should thereby be compelled to declare war against that Great Power, the two other contracting parties engage themselves to maintain benevolent neutrality towards their ally. Each of them reserves its right, in this case, to take part in the war if it thinks fit in order to make common cause with its ally.

The third clause published, Clause VII., was in the nature of a special Austro-Italian annexe, having no direct reference to Germany, but dealing with the interests of the other two allies in the Balkan Peninsula. This clause read as follows:—

Clause VII. Austria-Hungary and Italy, who have solely in view the maintenance, as far as possible, of the territorial *status*

quo in the East, engage themselves to use their influence to prevent all territorial changes which might be disadvantageous to one or other of the Powers signatory of the present Treaty. To this end they will give reciprocally all information calculated to enlighten each other concerning their own intentions and those of other Powers. Should, however, the case arise that, in the course of events, the maintenance of the *status quo* in the territory of the Balkans or of the Ottoman Coasts and Islands in the Adriatic or the Ægean Seas becomes impossible, and that, either in consequence of the action of a third Power or for any other reason, Austria-Hungary or Italy should be obliged to change the *status quo* for their part by a temporary or permanent occupation, such occupation would only take place after previous agreement between the two Powers, which would have to be based upon the principle of a reciprocal compensation for all territorial or other advantages that either of them might acquire over and above the existing *status quo*, and would have to satisfy the interests and rightful claims of both parties.

The Italian case was that the Austro-Hungarian action against Serbia in July, 1914, which was taken without full consultation with Italy, constituted a violation of this seventh clause. (See Italy.) Austria-Hungary originally disputed this, but subsequently, as has been seen, the Italian claim to compensation was admitted, and the concessions were even to be granted without regard to the possibility that the Triple Entente might be victorious, in which eventuality there would not be an extension of Austro-Hungarian influence in the Balkans, but the reverse. Moreover, after prolonged disputation the Vienna Government finally consented to hand over the ceded territories to Italy within one month of the conclusion of the proposed agreement, instead of postponing the cession until the end of the war, as Austria had at first suggested.

Clauses III. and IV. threw some additional light upon the momentous Austro-Russian dispute of July, 1914, which precipitated the Great War. There is obviously room for a difference of opinion as to whether Russia's action in support of Serbia came under the head of Clause III. or of Clause IV. And from a study of these clauses it also becomes apparent that (unless there existed some other secret agreement between Germany and Austria-Hungary) it was legally possible not only for Italy but for Germany herself¹ to have remained neutral in the Austro-Russian conflict, which by spreading to Germany and France became the World War. The point is of interest because the British Foreign Office actually made the proposal that Germany and France should both refrain from intervening in the Austro-Russian War

¹ By the terms of the original Austro-German alliance of the year 1879, which was the historic base of the Triple Alliance, Germany and Austria-Hungary were reciprocally bound to assist each other in the event of the one or the other being involved in war with Russia under any circumstances.

that was then feared. The German view was, however, that apart from all treaty obligations the maintenance of the strength of Austria-Hungary was a vital German interest, and Germans feared that in an Austro-Russian war Russia would be victorious. Nevertheless the legal point is important. For the rest the grievance against Italy, which was finally emphasised by Austria-Hungary, was not that she had no grounds for compensation, and not that she had refused to admit a *casus fœderis* (a plea which was really untenable in view of Clauses IV. and VII. and was virtually abandoned), but that even granting that Italy had sufficient reason for withdrawing from the Triple Alliance, she was under a legal and moral obligation to give twelve months' notice of such withdrawal.

Italy's declaration of war did not intimidate the Austrians, conscious as they were of the very defensible nature of their south-western frontier. Patriotic demonstrations were held in Vienna, Buda-Pesth, Prague, and other large cities, and excited enthusiasts rushed about the streets shouting "Down with the traitors!" On the evening of May 23 the aged Emperor issued a manifesto to his peoples denouncing the action of Italy, which he described as a "perfidy of which history knows not the like," and recalling the Austrian victories over Italians in earlier wars.

During the year the shortage of labour in both Austria and Hungary began to be acutely felt. Owing to the enormous number of casualties, the authorities were compelled to enrol in the Army men both below and above the ordinary age-limits for military service, youths of eighteen and men between forty-two and fifty thus being taken away from productive labour. Moreover, men between nineteen and forty-two who had hitherto been classed as medically unfit for service in the Army, were re-examined, and under the stress of the crisis many of these were passed into the service. The Austro-Hungarian casualties during the first twelve months of the war amounted to between 2,000,000 and 2,500,000, this high figure being partly caused by the large number of prisoners lost,—about 600,000. Steps were therefore taken to extend the employment of women and children in various branches of industry, particularly in agriculture.

Parliamentary life in Austria was in a state of suspense owing to the war. The Reichsrath and all the provincial diets were closed throughout the year. This state of things did not exist in Hungary, however. There the national Parliament was open, and important debates took place. Count Tisza's parliamentary position was unassailable; he possessed a considerable majority in the Lower House, and moreover the Opposition parties, including the Independence party led by Count Apponyi, gave the Government conditional support in all the necessary war measures.

Austria-Hungary felt the financial strain of the war even more severely than the other great belligerents. In a series of war-

loans Austria and Hungary together were said to have raised by the end of the year approximately 500,000,000*l.* sterling, as compared with 1,280,000,000*l.* subscribed towards the German loans. This sum (which includes the loans raised at the end of 1914) was no doubt insufficient to cover the cost of the war.

The Emperor William visited Vienna at the end of November and conferred with the Austrian Emperor and leading statesmen of the Dual Monarchy. The exact significance of this visit was not made known, but it was followed by several important changes in the Austrian Ministry, which were as follows: Baron von Udynski, Minister of the Interior, was succeeded by Prince Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst; Baron von Mainfelden, Finance Minister, by Ritter von Leth; and Dr. Schuster von Bonnot, Minister of Commerce, by Herr von Spitzmüller.

Austro-Hungarian relations with the United States of America were not always amicable during the year. The Ambassador at Washington, Dr. Dumba, was dismissed by the President owing to his intrigues with Germanophil agitators (see United States), and trouble arose over the sinking of the Italian steamer *Ancona* by an Austro-Hungarian submarine in the Mediterranean on November 7, on which occasion some Americans were drowned. The United States addressed two sharp notes to Baron Burian, but the matter was ultimately closed by an apology from the Vienna Government.

CHAPTER III.

RUSSIA, TURKEY AND THE MINOR STATES OF SOUTH-EASTERN EUROPE.

I. RUSSIA.

As in all the other belligerent countries, the internal history of Russia during the year was entirely dominated by the events of the war. The most serious problems which the Government were called upon to consider were those in connexion with finance; for not only had the vast expenditure of the war to be met, but there was a great falling off in the proceeds of existing taxation owing to the suppression of the sale of alcohol. At the beginning of the year M. Bark, Minister of Finance, placed upon the table of the Duma his budget proposals; and they were considered by the Chamber when it opened on February 9. M. Goremykin, President of the Council, opened the proceedings in a patriotic speech which was received with loud applause. He was followed by M. Sazonoff, Minister of Foreign Affairs, who recalled the events which preceded the outbreak of war and commented on the German intrigues for the isolation of Russia. He categorically denied the German allegations that *pogroms* had

been organised by the Russian troops against the Jews, and he repudiated all German attempts to arrange a separate peace with Russia. At the end of the sitting the Duma unanimously passed a resolution declaring its inflexible determination to carry on the war until justice and right had been restored in Europe.

On the following day M. Rodzianko, President of the Duma, spoke in similar terms, and then M. Alexeienko, President of the Budget Committee, declared that the war would demand enormous expenses. He said that the reduction in revenue owing to the war was 52,800,000*l.*, of which 40,000,000*l.* were due to the prohibition of the sale of alcohol. M. Kharitonoff, the State Controller, said that the Government estimated the cost of the war up to the end of the previous year at 302,000,000*l.* and the daily expense of the war at 1,400,000*l.* The Budget was then passed by the Duma and the Council of the Empire. Towards the end of February the Cabinet allocated a credit of 360,000*l.* for the preliminary works of a railway to be built from Kem to Kola on the Arctic Ocean; credits were also authorised in connexion with lines connecting the Archangel-Vologda railway with a port in the Government of Archangel, the intention being to assure to Russian commerce a permanently free sea-passage. Towards the end of May a new loan of 100,000,000*l.* was issued to which the Russian banks had already subscribed 60,000,000*l.* The loan bore interest at 5½ per cent. for five years and was convertible at 5 per cent. for seventy-five years if the bond-holder so desired.

Notwithstanding the success which was said to have followed upon the suppression of alcohol, an inter-departmental committee appointed to examine this question decided towards the end of March in favour of restoring the permission to sell wine and beer in various parts of the country. Advantage was at once taken of this permission.

A striking increase of thrift, however, was attributed by many to the prohibition of the sale of spirits; from September, 1914, to April, 1915, the State savings banks received an average monthly deposit of 3,800,000*l.* as compared with 100,000*l.* during the corresponding months in the two previous years.

The news of the Italian declaration of war was the occasion of a great popular demonstration in Petrograd. Vast crowds bearing the imperial portraits and national flags paraded on the Nevsky Prospekt singing the National Anthem and cheering for Italy.

On June 9, 10 and 11 industrial riots of a serious nature took place at Moscow. They were indeed not of a revolutionary character, but originated from various wild rumours, such as of the poisoning of the water by Germans who were employed in that town. A number of Germans were lynched and their houses were sacked; but, as the excitement continued to rise, the crowd attacked impartially the dwellings of English and French residents

as well as German. Pillaging spread all through the town which was lit up by incendiary fires; and it was not till the third day that the police were able to restore order. The damage was estimated at over 3,000,000*l.*; 113 German houses were destroyed and more than 500 other houses belonging to Russians, French or English.

In the latter half of June a number of changes were made in the Russian Government. M. Maklakoff, Minister of the Interior, resigned his portfolio and was succeeded by Prince Cherbatoff, Director of the Imperial stud. A few days later was announced the resignation of the Minister of War, General Sukhomlinoff; he was succeeded by General Polivanoff, formerly Assistant Minister. The new Minister began at once to pay special attention to the munition question, and the appointment was popular in the Duma. On June 29 the Czar addressed a rescript to M. Goremykin in the course of which he summoned the nation to increased efforts in view of the probability of a long war. A firm determination was expressed to carry on the war till the enemy was crushed, and it was announced that the Duma and the Council of the Empire would be called together in August at the latest. Further changes in the Ministry quickly followed those which have been already mentioned. M. Shcheglovitoff, Minister of Justice, and M. Sabler, Procurator of the Holy Synod, were dismissed and superseded respectively by M. Khvostoff and M. Samarin. The new Ministers were both moderate Conservatives and their substitution for their reactionary predecessors was intended to facilitate co-operation with the Duma. M. Bark remained at the Ministry of Finance and M. Goremykin continued as Prime Minister. Nevertheless these extensive changes were indicative of a remarkable change in Russian political life and they were carried out with the hearty support of all classes of the community. At the end of July, M. Kulomsin, Secretary of State, was appointed President of the Council of the Empire.

The Duma was opened on August 1 by Imperial Ukase; and M. Rodzianko, the President, said that the determination of Russia to bring the war to a successful conclusion was only increased by the recent German successes. Immense enthusiasm filled the whole assembly and the presence of the new Ministers was regarded as exemplifying the union of the Government in the Duma. M. Goremykin reiterated the Czar's promise of autonomy to the Polish people; and the programme of legislation included the creation of a special board of munitions on the lines already adopted in England. The most important speech of the day was made by M. Sazonoff, Minister for Foreign Affairs, who expressed the gratitude of the nation for the entry of Italy into the war. He stated that the Government of Sweden had throughout preserved a correct neutrality, and foreshadowed a still closer relationship with Japan than that which already existed.

The Foreign Minister was followed by General Polivanoff, the new Minister of War, who called upon the country to support the Government and the Army in the immense efforts necessary for the defeat of the enemy. On August 3 M. Rodzianko was re-elected President, and the Duma adopted a motion proposed by Count Bobrinsky in the name of the Centre group, the Octobrists, and the Nationalists, expressing the unshakeable and unanimous resolution of the whole population to continue the struggle until final success was attained and victory completed. The motion also emphasised the necessity for National Unity and the burial of old political disputes. A number of Opposition speakers attacked the War Office and demanded the immediate trial of the offenders responsible for the lack of sufficient shells and for peculation. But the great majority of the Duma espoused a moderate point of view while agreeing that those responsible for criminal omissions should pay the penalty.

The Council of the Empire was opened on August 6 by M. Kulomsin, the President; and Count Bobrinsky again expressed the grief of the nation over the temporary loss of Warsaw, while M. Shebeko, Polish member of the Council, vigorously affirmed the loyalty of the Poles to the Slav cause.

The demand for reform in the supply of munitions was dealt with in a secret sitting of the Duma on August 10, at the end of which it was announced that a commission of inquiry would shortly be appointed to investigate the guilt of the parties responsible for abuses. General Petrof was nominated President of this commission. A day or two later the Financial Committee of the Duma approved the Government recommendations for the establishment of an income tax, starting with incomes of 1,000 roubles on a graduated scale, the possessors of 100,000 roubles paying at the highest rate of 650 per 10,000.

One of the most important items of legislation was a Bill for extending the right of issuing notes by the Imperial State Bank. Introducing this Bill on August 31, M. A. I. Shingarev said that for 1915 the amount required to cover war outlays and the current needs of the State was 1,055,550,000 $\frac{1}{2}$. By the end of the year credit operations would have been concluded for 319,830,000 $\frac{1}{2}$. The deficit in revenue amounted to 35,460,000 $\frac{1}{2}$. and was the result partly of the war and partly of the prohibition of the sale of State liquor which had entailed a loss to the State of 84,440,000 $\frac{1}{2}$. The amount of the deficit would not be covered by the income tax, but it was hoped that in the Budget for 1916 the Minister of Finance would present a plan for radical financial reform. A policy of merciless taxation would be necessary in addition to appeals to public credits, for in the whole financial history of Russia there had never been a moment when she had delayed the payment of her creditors.

The dissatisfaction on the subject of munitions and on the

way in which various economic problems arising out of the war had been met caused in the middle of September what appeared for a moment to be a serious internal dispute. Towards the end of August a number of members of the Duma and Council of the Empire had held a meeting for the purpose of considering measures for the establishment of a strong and energetic Prime Minister and for impressing upon the Government the kind of programme that was desired. The Moscow City Council and many other public bodies had passed resolutions demanding in effect that the Cabinet should be filled by well-known public men rather than by bureaucrats. On September 4 the Czar made a speech in the winter palace at the first meeting of the Conferences for discussing the organisation of supply and munitions; and urged all parties in the State to abandon minor controversies and unite for the destruction of the foe. About the same time a *bloc* was formed between the Central and Progressive groups for furthering the demand for the reconstitution of the Ministry on a more popular basis. The general hope was that M. Goremykin would be succeeded as Premier by M. Krivosheïn, Minister of Agriculture. The demand of the *bloc* for a more popular government was associated and partly based upon a desire for greater efficiency in the conduct of the war, as well as for various internal reforms which it was believed would promote that efficiency. The Czar, however, felt himself unable to comply with these demands; and on September 16 by Imperial Ukase he ordered the suspension of the session of the Duma until November 14. Notwithstanding the profound disappointment caused by this measure, the members of the Duma succeeded in restraining their indignation and avoided what would otherwise have been a very serious internal dispute. The Ministry also decided for the same reason to remain in office, although much anger was shown at the action of M. Goremykin against whom the reform movement had been largely directed, and who was considered responsible for bringing about the present crisis by misinforming the Czar as to the situation.

On October 10 it was announced that Prince Cherbatoff had resigned his office of Minister of the Interior and been succeeded by M. Khvostoff, a member of the Duma, chiefly known as a confirmed reactionary. He began his official career by issuing statements of a liberal character to the Press and by pronouncing himself in favour of the early convocation of the Duma; but his first act was the proclamation of martial law in Moscow where there had been some dangerous strikes following upon the prorogation of the Duma. M. Khvostoff then proceeded to devote his energies to the extermination of German influence which was still strong in some of the largest business firms in the country. About this time the censorship of news from Russia became more severe than it had yet been during the whole course of the war.

On November 9 was announced the resignation of M. Krivoshein; and it appeared that the members of the Duma had now abandoned their attempts to procure reform and a more liberal reconstruction of the Ministry. On November 5 General Grigorieff, the late commandant of Kovno, was sentenced to fifteen years' hard labour and the loss of all rights for his insufficient defence of that fortress and his absence from it during the siege.

On November 5 the Finance Committee approved the conditions of a new internal loan of 100,000,000*l.* for ten years at 5½ per cent., the loan being issued at 95. A few days later the explanatory memorandum to the Budget was issued. On the assumption that 1916 would be a year of war the estimated revenue was 292,300,000*l.*, and the expenditure 325,100,000*l.* The memorandum pointed out the loss to the Exchequer involved by the seizure by the enemy of the richest industrial provinces.

The November elections to the Council of the Empire showed gains by the progressive *bloc* which now polled 95 votes against the 94 which the right wing controlled exclusive of the Government vote. About the same time general satisfaction was caused by the removal of M. Rukhloff from his office of Minister of Communication. He was succeeded by M. Trepoff, a Member of the Council of Empire and of the Senate.

The question of the sale of alcohol still continued at the end of the year to occupy the attention of the Government. Every sort of expedient was adopted by inveterate drinkers for overcoming the regulations; and the craving for strong liquor led them to consume any kind of available substitute for vodka—eau de Cologne, varnish, and particularly methylated spirits. The consumption of these liquids was of course far more dangerous than the recognised alcoholic beverages; and an attempt was made by M. Bark to prevent the drinking of methylated spirits by ordering that every bottle of that liquid sold to the public should be labelled "Poison." The labels moreover bore a statement to the effect that internal consumption of the liquid, even though heavily diluted with water, was dangerous to life. By these means it was hoped to strike the imagination of the country people. Whether in consequence of these vigorous measures against drink or not, the deposits of the people in the Russian State savings banks continued to increase; and on December 14 the total amount reached 289,500,000*l.*

During the first half of December telegraphic communication between Russia and England was virtually closed, except for a few official despatches. During this month the internal differences in Russia showed no tendency to diminish. Much regret was caused by the indefinite postponement of the date for the re-opening of the Duma. At the same time the Zemstvo and Town Congresses were forbidden to meet in Moscow, on the ground that the atmosphere of that city was unfavourable to such assemblies.

On the other hand congresses were held by the Monarchists at Petrograd and Nizhni Novgorod.

These congresses were marked by an obstinate determination to resist the aspirations of the Progressive elements in Russian politics. Little was said about the resistance to German influence in Russia. Much was said as to the necessity of maintaining the Imperial authority, and of taking repressive measures against the Press. Finally the Government was invited to abolish all the constitutional pledges given in the past; and the Czar was urged to maintain the autocracy as the sole means of preserving the country from the rising tide of revolution. In response to the expression of loyal sentiments, the Sovereign returned a somewhat cold expression of thanks. It is to be noted that the Monarchist congresses represented only a very small minority of extreme reactionaries. The Guild of the Archangel Michael refused to participate in the proceedings, on the ground that the present moment was ill-timed for political discussions which might lead towards public dissension. At the same time, the Centre party in the Upper House adopted resolutions declaring that nothing contained in the programme of the Progressive *bloc* was irreconcilable with the principles which the Centre had adopted.

The postponement of the assembling of the Duma was ostensibly based on the failure of the Budget Committees to complete their labours on the Estimates; and the Ukase postponing the session until these labours had been concluded was signed on December 6. According to a statement by M. Rodzianko, a miscalculation was discovered in the official computation of the deficit, which amounted to 50,000,000*l.* instead of 35,000,000*l.* The unpleasant effect caused by the postponement was largely due to the simultaneous meetings of the Monarchists, and the suppression of the Town Congresses in Moscow.

Another subject much under discussion at the end of the year was the convocation of the Finnish Diet, which according to Finnish laws was due to meet in February. The Grand Duchy was suffering acutely from a food crisis, and the question was ultimately left over for decision till early in 1916. Thus, although political questions still continued to be agitated in Russia, the masses of the people took little interest in them. For Russia as for her allies the fundamental purpose of the nation was the achievement of victory; and to that great end all other considerations were subordinated.

II. TURKEY.

The year began unpropitiously for Turkey. Enver Bey, the Turkish Dictator, and his German associates decided to prosecute the war against Russia in a vigorous manner and they did not shrink from taking risks. They launched the foolhardy offensive

in the Caucasus which ended in disaster to the Turkish 9th and 10th Army Corps, as described elsewhere (see "The European War"), and quite serious fighting between the Russians and Turks, although on a smaller scale, also took place farther east. For some time before war broke out, Russia had maintained a considerable garrison (over 5,000 men) in the Persian province of Azerbaijan, which had in fact come so completely under Russian control that it no longer paid any taxes to the Persian Government. As far back as November, 1914, the Austro-Hungarian and Turkish consuls in Tabriz were seized by the Muscovite authorities, and were sent as prisoners of war to Tiflis, the German consul only avoiding the same fate by a timely flight to the American consulate. Before the end of 1914, a Turkish army, consisting mainly of Kurdish tribesmen, but with a stiffening of regular troops, invaded Azerbaijan, and early in January the Moslem host entered Tabriz in triumph, and were received in a friendly manner by the populace. The Russians and those native Christians who had been fortunate enough to escape massacre by the Kurds fled north towards the Russian border. The Turkish triumph was not, however, of long duration. The Russian army was reinforced, and after a successful engagement north of Tabriz the Muscovites re-occupied that town on January 30.

A small Turkish expedition in another direction met with no greater success. From the time of the outbreak of war with the Triple Entente, the Ottoman Government loudly proclaimed that they would invade and re-conquer Egypt. The British abandoned the line of the Egyptian-Syrian frontier and fell back upon the Suez Canal, where strong entrenchments were dug. The defending army consisted of a mixed contingent of British, Australian, Indian, and Egyptian troops. The Turks made an attack with an army of about 12,000 men on February 2 and 3. The invaders advanced in several directions, but the main assault was delivered near Tussum by a column which had marched from Beersheba through Hali-el-Auja. The attack broke down everywhere under the fire from the British and French warships in the canal, and good execution was also done by the field artillery. The Turks retreated on the 3rd, leaving about 500 dead and over 600 prisoners.

Fighting on a small scale also occurred early in the year at the head of the Persian Gulf, where the British and Indian forces had occupied the district around Busreh and Ahwaz, in order to protect the great pipe-line of the Anglo-Egyptian Oil Company.

Moreover as time went on the British began to develop a serious offensive in this region. It should be said that Kurna, which is situated at the confluence of the Tigris and the Euphrates was occupied in December, 1914. By the beginning of April the Turks had been able to concentrate at least 15,000

troops in the Persian Gulf sphere of operations, and of these about 6,000 were Regular Ottoman soldiers. They were, however, very weak in artillery. On April 13 the Turks made a serious attack upon the British position at Shaiba, which is on the left bank of the Tigris, opposite Kurna. The Turkish assault broke down under the British fire, and thereupon the Anglo-Indian troops were ordered to make a counter-attack. The British offensive was completely successful, and being continued on the 14th, the Turkish camp was captured and was found to contain much booty, including 700,000 rounds of rifle ammunition. Over 200 prisoners were captured and the total British casualties were about 700.

In April the Turks also made an attack upon the British at Ahwaz, on the River Karun, over the Persian frontier, but this attack was also resisted successfully. During the remainder of April and throughout May the British were occupied in clearing the country in the angle between the Shatt-el-Arab and the Karun, but on June 1 they pressed on up the course of the Tigris and reached Amarah on the 3rd. The Turkish commander in this important town immediately surrendered with the whole garrison, and altogether about 80 Regular Turkish officers and some 2,000 of the Regular rank and file were thus captured. General Townshend was in command of this British column which took Amarah. At this early stage of the operations there were only known to be six German officers with the Turkish Mesopotamian army, and of these General Townshend captured three, and two others were killed.

General Nixon, who was in supreme command of the British Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force, decided to push up the Euphrates as well as the Tigris, and during July, despite the extreme heat, he succeeded in capturing Suk-es-Sheyukh and Nasirizeh, the latter town being taken on July 25. Meanwhile, the main advance up the Tigris was pushed forward, General Townshend now having between 20,000 and 30,000 troops under him. The town of Kut-el-Amarah was captured after a somewhat serious battle on September 29. Kut is situated about 250 miles from the Persian Gulf and (in a straight line) only about 100 miles from Baghdad. The military expedition was supported throughout by small armed vessels, which made their way up the Tigris. After this success high hopes were entertained in England that Baghdad itself might be captured.

At first it seemed probable that these hopes would be realised. General Townshend continued to force his way up the river, and not until he was almost within sight of Baghdad did he come upon any really strong Turkish entrenchments. On November 22, however, he found himself opposed by the main Ottoman Army which was encamped at a village named Ctesiphon, which was distant about thirteen miles from Baghdad. All that day, the 22nd,

a fierce battle raged, but in the evening the Turks retired, leaving the battlefield in the possession of the British. The losses of the British were, however, severe for such a small force, over 3,000 being killed and wounded. The Turks molested the invaders on the night of the 23rd-24th, and on the 24th the British commander was obliged to retire to the river three miles away, owing to his deficient supply of water. The following day the British again occupied the battlefield of Ctesiphon, but it so happened that the Turkish commander in Baghdad received strong reinforcements in the very nick of time. The Turkish army defeated at Ctesiphon on November 22 numbered 80,000, this figure no doubt including Arab auxiliaries. The survivors of this army, together with the reinforcements, now advanced from the immediate vicinity of Baghdad to avenge the previous defeat. In the presence of such overwhelming numbers, there was no course open to General Townshend but to retire; for as already stated his little Army numbered not much over 20,000 men. The retreat to Kut was successfully accomplished in a few days, but the rearguard suffered heavy losses, and the Turks, who were now much better supplied with guns, sank two British river gunboats that had accompanied the expeditionary force.

At the end of December General Townshend was in a precarious position. Kut itself was strongly fortified, but in face of the powerful Turkish Army the British commander did not dare to retreat farther through the open country. The Turks seized this opportunity to march eastwards of Kut, and thus succeeded in getting in between General Townshend and the British forces at the base many miles down stream. The British at Amarah quickly prepared to come to the rescue, and a force under General Aylmer began an advance to the relief of Kut. At the end of the year a junction had not been effected between the two small British armies.

The Mesopotamian theatre of war was not, of course, the most important sphere of operations for the Turks. They were defending the gates of their capital at the Dardanelles, and they were also heavily engaged with the Russians in the region around Lake Van. These two wars are described in full elsewhere. Small contingents of Turkish troops also assisted the Bulgarians in the conquest of Serbia in October. After the abortive attempt in February no further move was made, however, against the British position on the Suez Canal.

The year 1915 will always be memorable as a year of wars, and it is to be feared that it will also be ever notorious as a year of massacres and atrocities. There were stories of German and Austro-Hungarian ruthlessness in Poland, of Russian atrocities against the Jews in Galicia, of Bulgarians torturing prisoners in the Serbian campaign, of Greeks massacring villagers in their new territory in Epirus. In all these tales a good deal must un-

doubtedly be allowed for exaggeration, and this is true also of the appalling stories of Turkish atrocities against the Armenians. When all allowance is made, however, for sensational exaggeration, the Armenian massacres of 1915 remain some of the most terrible ever recorded.

When Enver Pasha returned from his defeat in the Caucasus in January, he was enraged against the Armenians, owing to the fact that they had assisted the Russians; and it appears that he and Taalet Bey, the Minister of the Interior, then decided upon the wholesale depopulation of the frontier districts as a deliberate policy. There is no reason to doubt that many of the Armenians, whose sympathies were with Russia but who were Turkish subjects, were technically traitorous; but disaffection which a civilised Power would have met by a vigorous application of martial law the Ottoman Government met by massacre. Thousands of men were shot down in cold blood, and many were reported to have been crucified or slowly done to death in other ways. Some of the men put up a fight, and sold their lives as dearly as possible. Multitudes of children were carried off to be brought up among strangers as Moslems. The women were given over to the Mohammedan rabble, or sold for the harems. Thousands were deported from Armenia into the interior of Asia Minor, many of them dying *en route*. These atrocities did not occur in one district of Armenia only, but at many places—at Arzerum, Marash, Samsun, Trebizond, and many other localities. The massacres began in the spring and continued throughout the summer. Some of the Armenians succeeded in reaching Russia, and others made their way to the coast and were taken off by friendly ships. It was reported that altogether some 800,000 victims were massacred or driven away into captivity, but under such circumstances reliable statistics are obviously not obtainable.

It was alleged that in some instances Germans resident in Asiatic Turkey connived at and even assisted in these atrocities. Some degree of responsibility undoubtedly rested upon the German and Austro-Hungarian Governments. Of course Germany and Austria-Hungary were not directly responsible for Taalet Bey's horrible policy, but as they alone of the Great Powers were in a position to bring strong pressure to bear upon the Ottoman Government, they incurred a certain indirect responsibility in not doing so. For apart from perfunctory protests at Constantinople, made after most of the mischief was done, no steps were taken by the two Central Empires.

The internal situation in European Turkey was very little disturbed by the war. Constantinople and Smyrna suffered throughout the earlier part of the year from a shortage of coal and other necessities, but when Bulgaria entered into the war in October as an ally of Turkey and direct communication with Central Europe was established, most of these economic difficulties were relieved.

The treaty with Bulgaria by which the Turkish portion of the Dedeagatch railway was ceded to Bulgaria is described elsewhere (see Bulgaria). The relations between Turkey and her two chief allies remained very friendly, and the country came more and more under German influence. In particular, the organisation of the Army was largely under German control. The development of the Turco-Bulgarian Entente was an extraordinary reversal of historic tendencies which was due mainly to German persuasion at Constantinople, although, of course, it was also assisted indirectly by the Bulgarian bitterness against Serbia. Relations with Rumania were correct, and King Constantine and the Gounaris party in Greece showed no very great hostility towards Turkey. With Italy, however, there was constant friction, which ended in the Italian declaration of war on August 21. The Italian Ambassador, Marquis Garroni, left Constantinople on that day, and Italian interests in the Ottoman Empire were placed under the protection of the American Embassy. The immediate cause of this rupture of relations was the refusal of the Turkish Government to permit Italians in Turkey to depart to their own country, although the Porte had undertaken to allow them to do so. The importance of this matter resided in the fact that when Italy declared war on Austria-Hungary in May, there were many Italian subjects in Asia Minor liable to military service, and it was for this reason that the Turkish authorities obstructed the Italians' departure. Apart from this question of preventing Italian soldiers rejoining their colours, Italy had a long series of grievances against Turkey. In particular, the Turks were charged with stirring up trouble among the Arabs in Tripoli, who had never become reconciled to Italian rule. A fuller description of the Italian case against Turkey is given elsewhere (see Italy).

III. RUMANIA.

At the beginning of the year the thoughts of all Rumanians were directed towards the great European War, and its relation to the destiny of their own country, and little attention could be given to social reform or the internal politics of Rumania. Here, as in Italy, opinion was much divided as to the part which the country ought to play, and the division of opinion roughly followed party lines. One of the Opposition parties, the Democratic Conservatives, led by M. Take Jonescu, were strongly in favour of intervention on the side of the Triple Entente, with a view to annexing the Hungarian province of Transylvania, and possibly also a part or even the whole of the Austrian province of Bukovina. It was no secret that many Rumanians had long cherished designs against the integrity of the Dual Monarchy, nearly 60 per cent. of the population of Transylvania being Rumanian in tradition, language, culture, and religious sympathies, whilst Bukovina contains the ancient capital of Moldavia, the small but famous

town of Suczawa. The advocates of intervention urged that a better opportunity of realising these territorial ambitions was not likely to occur. Outside the ranks of the Democratic Conservatives, however, the bellicose propaganda found less favour. Opinion in the other Opposition party, the Conservatives, was divided, and the Prime Minister (M. Bratiano) and his Liberal Government pursued a non-committal course of watchful neutrality, notwithstanding the constant rumours in Paris and London that Rumania might be expected to intervene early in the year. There is no doubt that the equivocal attitude of Bulgaria described elsewhere (see Bulgaria) was one of the strongest influences in thwarting Rumanian intervention, and King Ferdinand's relationship to the royal house of Prussia must not be forgotten. On the other hand, there was no party of any consequence which desired to join forces with the two Central Empires, although the sympathies of the Socialists were said to be somewhat pro-German. Whatever hopes of eventual union with their brethren in Bessarabia may have been entertained by the Russophobe section of Rumanians, they did not regard the realisation of those hopes as practicable during this war.

The Government were resolved to be prepared for any eventuality, and proceeded to strengthen the Army. Also, in January Great Britain made a loan to Rumania of 5,000,000*l.* sterling, in the shape of an advance by the Bank of England against Rumanian Treasury bills. Following this, in February, Sir Arthur Paget was sent by the British Government on a mission to the Balkans; he visited Bucharest, where he dined with M. Take Jonescu and was received by the King and Queen. General Pau, the famous French commander, also went to Bucharest in February, and was given a most enthusiastic welcome by the populace, and was received by the King and many leading persons in the capital. By means of these two visits, and through the regular diplomatic channels, constant negotiations took place between the Triple Entente and Rumania, and when Italy at last intervened in the spring, it came as a surprise in Western Europe that Rumania did not follow that country's example. The attitude of the Rumanian Government became, however, increasingly cautious, no doubt largely because of the great Russian defeats in Galicia, and the Rumanian demands for territorial "compensation" in payment for participation in the war were larger than the Russian Government were willing to grant. The Liberal party possessed such a large majority in the Parliament that the pro-Russian sympathies of the two Opposition groups were not of great practical importance.

During the second half of the year the condition of Rumania formed a happy contrast to that of all the other countries of South-Eastern Europe. Not only did the Government avoid being entangled in the war which was ruining all the neighbouring

States, but Rumanians enjoyed a highly prosperous time, the inflated prices ruling in the adjoining countries affording them excellent markets for their goods. When Bulgaria mobilised against Serbia at the end of September, the Rumanian Cabinet made no move, and there was never any serious question of Rumania going to war to defend the terms of the Treaty of Bucharest. Nevertheless, Rumanian neutrality remained on the whole benevolent towards the Entente, as was shown when Germany and Austria-Hungary, before the Bulgarian intervention, brought great pressure to bear upon the Government to allow munitions of war to pass from Hungary through Rumania to Turkey. M. Bratiano refused to accede to this request, and moreover the Rumanian officials were given strict orders to prevent the smuggling of ammunition through the country by means of false declarations of the nature of goods carried over the railways from the Hungarian to the Bulgarian frontier. Numerous cases of such attempted smuggling were discovered.

According to the official statistics published in the autumn, the population of Rumania at the end of 1914 was 7,771,341. The number of births during that year was 327,345 and the number of deaths 182,349. The birth-rate, high for the whole country, was especially high in the district recently annexed from Bulgaria.

IV. BULGARIA.

Just as the neutrality of Rumania in the European War may be said to have been benevolent towards the Triple Entente, so was the neutrality of Bulgaria benevolent towards the Austro-German allies. The cause of this was to be found, of course, in the Treaty of Bucharest (1913) to which the Bulgarians had by no means become reconciled. The bitter antagonism felt by Bulgarians towards Rumania, Serbia, and Greece, was a more powerful influence than the traditional enmity of the Turks, and the ancient friendship for Russia was greatly weakened owing to the latter country's support of Serbia's claims in the second Balkan War. Diplomatic negotiations were known to have taken place between Rumania and Bulgaria early in the year, but the exact nature of the conversations was kept secret. It was, however, rumoured (despite official denials) that M. Radoslavoff's Government had been unwilling to undertake to remain neutral in the event of a Rumanian incursion into Transylvania, unless Serbia, and also Greece, could be induced to cede at least part of the eastern section of Macedonia which Bulgaria claimed in 1913, and Serbia and Greece are believed to have refused that concession. Indications of the friendly relations between Bulgaria and the two Central Powers were not wanting. Thus in the campaigns against Serbia at the end of 1914 the Austro-Hungarian Army captured numerous soldiers hailing from the

"Bulgarian" districts of Serbian Macedonia, who were serving unwillingly in the Serbian Army, and these men were set free and allowed to make their way into Bulgaria. Furthermore, in February Germany paid over to Bulgaria 3,000,000*l.* sterling, an instalment of a loan of 20,000,000*l.* that had been agreed to before the war, and although the Bulgarian Government denied that this transaction carried any political significance, there were those who doubted whether Germany would have parted with money at such a time except for some solid *quid pro quo*. Another 3,000,000*l.* sterling of the same loan was paid over to Bulgaria, in a series of smaller sums, between February and June. The conditions under which this loan was contracted gave the Germans important mining and railway concessions in Bulgaria.

Whilst the Bulgarian Government on the one hand and the Rumanian, Serbian and Greek Governments on the other side were in grave antagonism to one another, the Socialist parties of the Balkans maintained comparatively cordial relations. An Inter-Balkan Socialist Congress was held at Sofia on March 7 and the speakers, Rumanians, Bulgarians, and Serbians, united in protesting against the war. They also demanded that the Governments should work towards the formation of a Balkan federal alliance, and that the Rumanian and Bulgarian Ministers should co-operate with the Governments of other neutral countries with a view to re-establishing peace in Europe.

The ill-feeling between Bulgaria and Serbia increased after the affray at Valandova in April (see Serbia), and after that incident 20,000 Macedonian refugees fled to Bulgaria. Meanwhile the diplomatists worked to establish an entente with Turkey, and since the Ottoman Empire was badly in need of support, the Bulgarians found the Turkish Government ready to reciprocate. Nevertheless, throughout the spring and summer, M. Radoslavoff did not cease to exchange ideas with the countries of the Triple Entente, and in reality both the great rival alliances of Europe were bidding for the support of this small state. In May the Prime Minister gave the British Government an outline of the conditions on which Bulgaria would consent to join forces with the Triple Entente. These conditions included the restitution by Serbia of the Bulgarian portions of Macedonia (both the part which was admitted to be Bulgarian in the Serbo-Bulgarian Treaty of 1902 and also the "contested zone"); the cession of Kavalla, Drama, and Serres; the restoration by Rumania of the New Dobruja, other than Silistria; and as against Turkey the restoration of the Enos-Midea frontier according to the Treaty of London of 1913. The Powers of the Quadruple Entente—Italy having now entered into the negotiations—replied to these Bulgarian proposals on May 29, but the demands of the Sofia Government were only partially met, the difficulty being that

Rumania, Serbia, and Greece were not inclined to cede any territory. A serious hitch thus arose in the negotiations, and, as will be seen, the obduracy of Serbia ultimately proved fatal to success. Moreover, feeling in Bulgaria was exasperated by the constant attacks directed against this country in the Russian and French newspapers. However, in July it was announced that Mr. H. T. O'Beirne, Councillor of the British Embassy at Petrograd, had been appointed British Minister at Sofia, in succession to Sir Henry Bax-Ironside, and thereafter the British Government, which was held in much greater esteem in Bulgaria than the French and Russian Governments, made great efforts to establish a concordat between the Balkan states; and in August pressure was brought to bear upon Serbia to accede to at least part of the Bulgarian demands. By this time, however, the favourable opportunity that existed in May had passed away. King Ferdinand and his General Staff, who had always had a high opinion of the German Army, were greatly impressed by the capture of Warsaw and the disastrous retreat of the Russians. The Bulgarian Government desired before everything to avoid entering the war on the side which was destined to be defeated, and hence from June onwards the diplomacy of the Entente was handicapped by the military events in the eastern theatre of the war.

The way was thus smoothed for the rival diplomacy of the Central Powers, and on July 17 Prince Hohenlohe arrived in Sofia on his way to Constantinople where he was to take up the duties of German Ambassador to the Sublime Porte. The prince stayed only twenty-four hours in the Bulgarian capital, but he was received by the King and the royal family and also interviewed the Prime Minister and other leading statesmen. His visit had the effect of expediting the Turco-Bulgarian negotiations. The first result of these negotiations was the cession by Turkey of a small strip of territory through which the Dedeagatch railway passed. This railway, running southwards from Philippopolis to the Bulgarian port of Dedeagatch on the *Ægean* Sea, passed for a short distance through Turkish territory; and it was this portion of the railway, together with the territory west of it, that the Ottoman Government decided to cede to Bulgaria. The preliminary agreement on this question was signed at Constantinople on July 22.

On August 18 Lieut.-General Fitcheff, the Minister of War, resigned his appointment, ostensibly owing to ill-health, but probably because of his notorious 'sympathies with the Entente. He was succeeded by Major-General Jekoff. At the end of August the Opposition parties became very uneasy about the Government's intentions, and demanded that the Parliament should be summoned in special session in order to consider the political situation. They issued a manifesto to the nation making this

demand, and also asking for the formation of a coalition Government. All the Opposition parties, the Agrarians and the Nationalists, the Democrats and the Socialists, were in favour either of continued neutrality or of intervention on the side of the Entente. The Liberal Government held office by a narrow majority only, even with the support of the sixteen Moslem deputies. The Prime Minister refused to summon Parliament, and in view of his subsequent actions this is not surprising, because a minority of the Liberals, led by M. Gennadieff, were equally with the Opposition parties hostile to any actively Germanophil policy; and Dr. Radoslavoff would certainly have been unable to obtain a parliamentary majority in support of any schemes for an actual alliance with the Central Powers and Turkey. The Government replied to the manifesto by issuing a statement that an extraordinary session of the Parliament was unnecessary, since the Ministry had no intention of departing from their policy of neutrality.

On August 29 Sofia received a visit from another of Germany's leading diplomatists. This was no less a personage than the Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, who was accompanied by a high official of the Berlin Foreign Office. He stayed at the Palace for over a week and it cannot be doubted that he was largely instrumental in arranging a secret agreement between Bulgaria and the Central Powers, the fruits of which were soon to be seen.

On September 19 the Bulgarian Government suddenly issued an order for a general mobilisation, without any apparent cause. It was announced that Bulgaria only intended to maintain an "armed neutrality," but it was universally suspected that King Ferdinand had something more than armed neutrality in view. The Serbian Government desired to attack Bulgaria forthwith, before the mobilisation could be completed, but this the Entente Powers, particularly Great Britain, would not allow, as they still hoped to arrange some kind of concordat between the rival states. This scheme had, however, now become quite hopeless. The order for mobilisation was obeyed without enthusiasm, and a number of deserters made their way across the Rumanian frontier. At the beginning of October the new Austro-German attack upon Serbia commenced, and it came to the knowledge of the Russian Government that numerous German officers were arriving in Sofia. Hence on October 4 the Czar's Government sent an ultimatum to Sofia, demanding that the German and Austro-Hungarian officers should be sent out of the country and that the Bulgarian Government should break openly "with the enemies of the Slav cause" within twenty-four hours. M. Radoslavoff's reply to this ultimatum was not deemed satisfactory in Petrograd, and hence not only the Russian Minister, but the Ministers of France, Great Britain, and Italy were recalled from Sofia forthwith. On October 11 Bulgarian troops crossed the

Serbian frontier, the Government announcing that this action had been rendered necessary owing to the aggression of the Serbians, who had "attacked the Bulgarian Army." This story of Serbian aggression was worthy of as much credence as the previous announcement of "armed neutrality."

The course of the campaign is described in full elsewhere (see "The European War"). The Bulgarians speedily won victories, and captured Nish on November 5. By the end of the year they were in effective occupation of all that part of Macedonia which had belonged to Serbia for two years, and during the operations care was taken to avoid any serious incidents with the Greek troops watching the frontier.

Although hostility to Serbia was almost universal in Bulgaria, the war was by no means received with unqualified enthusiasm. Many Bulgarians heartily disliked fighting against their old friends and benefactors the Russians, and there was no direct quarrel of any kind with Great Britain. There is little doubt, as already stated, that if the Parliament had been called upon to decide, the majority would have been against King Ferdinand's policy of adventure, because a minority of the Ministerialists would certainly have broken away from their party on this issue.

V. SERBIA.

After the Austro-Hungarian rout and the recapture of Belgrade at the end of 1914, Serbia entered upon a period of military quiescence, but the country was soon afflicted with a new scourge in the form of an epidemic of typhus. Owing to the insanitary state of the country, the disease spread appallingly, and although medical assistance arrived from abroad, especially from England, this was for some time inadequate to deal with the ravages of the epidemic. Nish, the temporary capital and the seat of M. Pasitch's Government, was overcrowded with refugees from Belgrade and the north, nearly a million persons being concentrated in this small town. The Government decided to extend full political and civil rights to the inhabitants of "New Serbia" (*i.e.* the provinces conquered in the two Balkan Wars), many of the conscripts from these districts having fought loyally and well against the Austrians. Proclamations to this effect were issued, but of course no steps could be taken in the matter during the war. The contentment with Serbian rule was not universal, however, and a certain number of Moslems and "Bulgarian" Macedonians emigrated to Bulgaria (see Bulgaria). There was a perpetual undercurrent of disaffection, and a somewhat serious attempt at insurrection was made by the "Turks" at Valandova at the beginning of April. The insurgents killed many Serbian gendarmes, burned down buildings, and when troops arrived in force they fled across the Bulgarian frontier. According to the Serbian Government the rising had been in-

stigated and supported by Bulgarian bands from across the border, but this was denied in Sofia.

The entry of Italy into the war in May was not hailed with enthusiasm in Serbia. The rumour that the Triple Entente had promised Italy Northern Dalmatia in the event of victory, caused a great deal of bitter feeling and a new league, called the "Adriatic League," was founded to oppose any such plan. It was openly declared in Nish that Serbia would prefer that Dalmatia should remain Austrian rather than that the province should be handed over to Italy. The Russian Government on the other hand appeared to be willing to concede the Italian claim, apparently on the ground that it was desirable that the enlarged Serbia should be as exclusively Greek Orthodox in religion as possible, the inclusion of the Dalmatians, the great majority of whom were Roman Catholics, therefore being undesirable (see also Austria-Hungary). The immunity of Serbia from invasion during the first half of the year was, however, partly due to Italian action. On February 12 the Italian Government informed the Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister that having regard to Article VII. of the Triple Alliance (see Austria-Hungary) they would regard any further action by the Dual Monarchy in the Balkans as an unfriendly act. This declaration was in effect a protection to Serbia until the end of May, when Italy declared war, although of course the motive for the Italian prohibition was not friendliness towards Serbia.

At the beginning of August the Entente Powers, led in this instance by Great Britain, endeavoured to arrange a *modus vivendi* between Bulgaria and Serbia, and to this end brought much pressure upon Serbia to cede that part of Macedonia which she had admitted to be Bulgarian, according to "the principle of nationality," before the second Balkan War. The Serbian Parliament (Skuptshina) opened for a short session on August 16, and gave full consideration to the allies' proposals. The debates were secret, but it became known that Serbia had at last agreed to make some of the concessions required by Bulgaria. Had Serbia made even the partial concessions earlier, the probability is that Bulgarian hostility would have been bought off; but by the end of August Bulgaria was already bound to Turkey (see Bulgaria), and no doubt also to Turkey's allies.

It may be of interest to record here, in connexion with the acrimonious Serbo-Bulgarian dispute about Macedonia (one of the worst questions of the Alsace-Lorraine type), that the problems of nationality in that region were dealt with at the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, in September. No more impartial tribunal for deciding such a question can be imagined, and the erudite speakers gave their verdict in favour of Bulgaria. One authority, Sir Arthur Evans, said that the Macedonian population was "homogeneously Bulgar," except

along the coast; and Professor Elliot-Smith, the great anthropologist, whilst not going quite so far as Sir A. Evans, also said that Bulgaria had a much better claim than Serbia to the disputed territory.

The Serbian military party, led by the Crown Prince, had obstructed a settlement too long, and in September the storm began to gather. Along the northern banks of the Danube and the Save, Austro-Hungarian and German troops began to concentrate. This time the expedition against Serbia was not organised by Austro-Hungarian generals of monumental incompetence; it was under the direction of one of the greatest leaders in the German Army, Field-Marshal von Mackensen. And the Eastern neighbour, seeking vengeance and consumed with hate, also mobilised. A statement was issued from Sofia that Bulgaria was maintaining "armed neutrality," but whether or not that falsehood deceived anybody, it certainly found no credence in Nish. And there was no help at hand. The troops of the great Slavonic ally were no longer in the Carpathians; they were defending the roads to Kief. Greece, supposed to be a friend and in a certain disputed sense an ally, was weak, and trembled at the name of von Mackensen. Also the Queen of Greece was a Hohenzollern, sister of the head of that House. Italy, possibly not too anxious to send assistance to the rival claimant to Dalmatia, and certainly not desirous of taking undue risks, did not move. Two chivalrous allies there were, but they were far away beyond the sea, and their soldiers would be long in arriving. France and Britain, in the face of insuperable difficulties, made a valiant attempt at rescue, but they were too late. The storm burst. On October 7 Austro-German forces were thrown across the Drina, the Save, and the Danube, and on the 9th Belgrade fell. A few days later King Ferdinand's armies swept west. In two months the combined enemies conquered the whole country.¹

It was under these circumstances that Serbia ceased towards the end of the year to be an independent country and became a territory administered jointly from Vienna, Berlin, and Sofia.

The future of Serbia was much discussed in Austria-Hungary, on the assumption, of course, that the Central Powers would ultimately prove victorious in the war. In some circles the complete annihilation of the Serbian State was advocated, but certain writers preferred a policy of moderation. This moderate policy implied allowing Bulgaria to annex all that she desired in Macedonia, and the seizure of Belgrade and perhaps the north-eastern corner of the country by the Dual Monarchy, so that the Hungarian and Bulgarian frontiers might be brought into contact with each other. The remainder of the country might be allowed to continue to exist as an independent State. It was understood

¹ The military operations are described in full elsewhere.

that this policy was favoured in official quarters at Vienna, and was also preferred by the Magyars, who did not desire to see a large Slav population added to the empire.

VI. GREECE.

The beginning of the new year found Greece consolidating her position in the new territories, and especially in Epirus. In Greece, as in Rumania, there were two parties on the questions raised by the European War, one party desiring intervention on the side of the Triple Entente and the other advocating neutrality. The Prime Minister, M. Venizelos, was strongly in favour of intervention, and desired to co-operate with the Franco-British forces when the attack upon the Dardanelles was made at the end of February. M. Venizelos was unable, however, to persuade either the King or the majority of Greek statesmen to agree to this course of action and he therefore resigned on March 5. The King sent for M. Gounaris who formed a new Ministry pledged to neutrality, at least for the time being. The neutrality of the Gounaris Cabinet was due not so much to any sympathies with Germany as to fear of Bulgaria. M. Venizelos himself had been prepared to purchase the co-operation of the Bulgarian Army by the cession of Kavalla, Drama, and Sari-Shaban (a territory with an area of 780 sq. m.), but when the instalment of the German loan was paid to Bulgaria in February, the idea of obtaining Bulgarian assistance was abandoned as hopeless. Nevertheless, M. Venizelos still desired to intervene, and to risk Bulgarian hostility, for the Triple Entente offered Greece an enormous accession of territory in the Smyrna region of Asia Minor (no less than 50,000 sq. m.), but counsels of caution carried the day, and the new Ministry endeavoured to discredit M. Venizelos with the public by emphasising his willingness to bargain away a portion of Greece.

Greek methods in the portion of Albania that had been annexed, *viz.* Epirus, appear to have been the reverse of civilised. According to the reports of independent witnesses, including officers of the Dutch Gendarmerie who had been in this district, many Albanians were massacred in cold blood by their new Greek masters.

In April a census of the new Greek provinces, that is, the territories annexed after the two Balkan Wars, was published. The returns showed that the population of Greek Macedonia was 1,194,902, of Crete 336,151, of Epirus 245,618, and of the Ægean Islands 324,343. Thus the population of the country was almost doubled by the successful wars against Turkey and Bulgaria, and numbered in 1915 nearly 5,000,000.

As M. Gounaris did not possess a majority in the Parliament, a general election became necessary and was fixed for June 13. In their respective election campaigns both the Ministerialists

and the followers of Venizelos declared that they were opposed to the cession of any portion of Greek territory to Bulgaria, although, as has been seen, M. Venizelos had been willing to consider such a cession under certain circumstances. The result of the elections was a victory for M. Venizelos and the Liberal party. The House consisted of 315 deputies, and 180 of the successful candidates were Liberals, giving M. Venizelos a majority of 45 over all the Government parties combined. The Government won the great majority of the constituencies in Macedonia, because the Turkish voters in that region naturally supported the anti-war policy of M. Gounaris. Thus M. Venizelos had a large majority in "old Greece."

The Government did not resign immediately. King Constantine was ill, and it was said that he could not bear the strain involved in a change of Ministers. Parliament did not meet until August 16. On a vote for the presidency of the Chamber, the Government were defeated and the Prime Minister resigned office. The King asked M. Venizelos to form a Ministry, and that statesman accepted the invitation. M. Venizelos came into power at a critical moment. On August 3 the Quadruple Entente had informed Greece that a note had been sent to Bulgaria offering that country not only part of Serbian Macedonia, but also Kavalla and its hinterland, if the Sofia Government would consent to intervene in the war and march on Constantinople. At the same time, the allies stated that Greece should have large compensation in Asia Minor. Whatever King Constantine and M. Gounaris may have thought of these proposals, there is little doubt that M. Venizelos, when he came into power a fortnight later, was disposed to consider them favourably, although even the Venizelist newspapers criticised the tone of the Entente's note as insulting to a friendly and neutral nation. The Allies did not ask for any Greek assistance in the war, but only demanded the cession of the territory mentioned.

The scheme, however, came to nothing, owing to the fact that Bulgaria was by this time secretly committed to the Central Powers, or at least to an entente with Turkey. The course of events was very different from that desired by the Entente Powers and M. Venizelos.

The Bulgarian mobilisation on September 19 can scarcely have taken Greece by surprise, and M. Venizelos at any rate was not deceived as to the imminence of the threat to Serbia. The Premier immediately obtained the King's permission to call up twenty-four classes of the reserves, and thus a Greek mobilisation was the prompt answer to King Ferdinand's equivocal move. By the terms of the alliance between Serbia and Greece, concluded at the time of the second Balkan War, either was bound to come to the assistance of the other in the event of an attack by Bulgaria, and M. Venizelos considered that the treaty covered the situation

which he saw was about to arise. Furthermore, the Premier was prepared to join the Entente almost unreservedly. The Greek Government made an arrangement with France and Great Britain by which a Franco-British expeditionary force should be landed at Salonika, and should be pushed quickly up the Vardar Valley, so as to protect Southern Macedonia against the Bulgarian menace. At the same time, in order to safeguard Greek neutrality, the Government entered a public and formal protest against this action, for M. Venizelos was apparently not prepared to declare war immediately. It was reported that this protest, which seemed inconsistent with the definite agreement with Greece by which the troops were sent to Salonika, was insisted upon by King Constantine against the wishes of M. Venizelos. The report was congruous with what followed. On October 4 an historic debate took place in the Chamber. M. Venizelos informed the House that the French Minister, M. Guillemain, had notified him of the arrival of the first troops sent by France and Great Britain to Salonika, and had asked that nothing should be done to oppose their passage through the country. The Premier also stated that he had the assurance of the two Powers that the proposals previously made to Bulgaria, which included the cession of Kavalla by Greece, had now lapsed owing to Bulgaria's unfriendly mobilisation. It will be remembered that the proposals in question had not been well received in Greece. The leaders of the Opposition parties in the Chamber protested vehemently against this violation of Greek neutrality. M. Gounaris, M. Rallis, and M. Théotokis all expressed hostility to the Ministry's plan. The Opposition leaders also maintained that the treaty of alliance with Serbia had become void, because the object of that treaty was to protect the part of Macedonia annexed by Serbia and Greece after the second Balkan War, and since Serbia had recently agreed to hand over a portion of that territory to Bulgaria, the treaty had lapsed. The debate was long and stormy, but the Government's pro-Entente policy was approved by 142 votes to 102.

Then the King intervened. He told M. Venizelos on October 5 that he could not permit him to pursue his policy, and thereupon the Prime Minister and the whole Government resigned. The King was no doubt influenced in this decision both by his own inclinations and by the fact that the neutralists in Parliament, though a minority, were nevertheless a large minority. The King asked M. Zaimis to form a Government and that politician complied with the request. Parliament was not dissolved, as M. Venizelos took what he believed to be the patriotic course by refraining from using his majority to defeat the new Ministry. In the meantime, the French and British continued to land troops at Salonika, although, of course, the party now in power viewed their presence with dislike. Desperate efforts were made by the

Entente to induce the Greek Government to change their attitude. The British Government offered to cede Cyprus to Greece, if that country would give immediate and full help to Serbia. The offer was refused by M. Zaimis, and indeed the Government plainly showed where their sympathies really lay. There were threats that if any Serbian troops should be driven over the frontier into Greece, they would be forthwith disarmed and interned in accordance with the dictates of strict neutrality. There was even talk of interning the Franco-British troops. The Entente became uneasy, for the Greek Army was mobilised. The French Government sent M. Cochin, who was well known and popular in Greece, as a special envoy to Athens, and on November 20 Lord Kitchener also visited the capital as an official emissary of the British Government. The British War Minister had an audience with King Constantine, and also met M. Skouloudis, who had by that date succeeded M. Zaimis as Prime Minister. Friction continued, however, and for a few days at the end of November Great Britain placed restrictions on Greek shipping, in order to compel the Hellenic Government to give guarantees for the safety of the Entente troops in Macedonia. After much discussion the pledges required were given, and most of the Greek troops were withdrawn from their somewhat menacing position near Salonika. Before the end of the year the Franco-British forces were compelled to retire from Southern Serbia into which they had penetrated, but they remained at Salonika, where they were left unmolested by the Bulgarians and Germans up till the end of December.

M. Zaimis having been defeated in the Chamber, M. Skouloudis became Prime Minister at the beginning of November. There was no great difference between the policies of the two statesmen. As, however, M. Venizelos possessed a majority in the House, the position became impossible, and there was another dissolution of Parliament. The general election was fixed for December 19, but M. Venizelos and his followers refused to take any part in the contests, as a protest against what they regarded as the unconstitutional behaviour of the King and his friends since the beginning of October. The elections were therefore farcical, and of course resulted in the return of the neutralists to power. M. Skouloudis remained Prime Minister till the end of the year.

The position of the Franco-British Army at Salonika, a neutral port, was a somewhat anomalous one, and during the earlier part of their occupation very exact information on the numbers and constitution of the Allied Army was sent by spies to the Berlin Government. Interference with these spies was not easy in a neutral country. On December 30, however, the French commander, General Sarraill, took drastic if not very legal action. The German, Austro-Hungarian, Turkish, and Bulgarian consuls and vice-consuls, with their families and the officials of the con-

ulates, were arrested and conveyed to a French warship; and on the evidence furnished by documents seized in the consulates hundreds of spies were arrested. The Greek Government protested against this unusual act, but the French refused to reinstate the consuls. The Norwegian vice-consul was also arrested, it being stated that he was of German nationality, and had acted in the German interest.

VII. MONTENEGRO.

Little news of this small State was received during the year. Although at war with the Central Powers, it was not until December that it became seriously involved in the fighting. Then, however, the Austrians made a determined attempt to invade the country, but had not made much progress by December 31. On June 27 the Montenegrin troops took possession of Scutari, and it was announced that the town was annexed to Montenegro.

VIII. ALBANIA.

The New Year found Albania relapsed into its traditional condition of anarchy. Essad Pasha maintained at Durazzo some semblance of a central government, but he wielded no authority over the greater part of the country, which was in the hands of the virtually independent tribes, who, once more out on the war-path, threatened their nominal ruler, and at the instigation of Austrian and Turkish agents made constant raids into Serbia. Moreover the official neutrality of the Durazzo Government in the great war did not prevent Greece from absorbing Epirus, nor did it deter Italy from strengthening her position at Valona, which Italian troops had occupied on Christmas Day, 1914. When Bulgaria entered the war, one of the first Germans to join King Ferdinand's Army was the ex-Mpret of Albania, Prince William of Wied, and it was inferred that he had the design to reconquer his throne. Large numbers of the defeated Serbians fled through the Albanian mountains to the Adriatic after the German conquest of Serbia in October and November. The Italian forces around Valona was much increased towards the end of the year.

CHAPTER IV.

LESSER STATES OF WESTERN AND NORTHERN EUROPE: BELGIUM
—LUXEMBURG—THE NETHERLANDS—SWITZERLAND (WITH
LIECHTENSTEIN) — SPAIN—PORTUGAL—DENMARK—SWEDEN
—NORWAY.

I. BELGIUM.

THE year 1915 will be memorable as constituting a complete gap in the history of Belgium. The life of the nation had altogether ceased; administrative, industrial, commercial and financial trans-

actions had come to a dead stop. The entire country with the exception of the South-Western corner was under the infliction of the German occupation, and the Government throughout the year continued to be the guests of the French Republic at Le Havre. Little authentic news percolated through as to the details of the German military government; but every one who passed through the country agreed upon the universal misery caused by the exactions and the policy of terrorisation pursued by the Germans. Externally the life of Brussels did not seem to differ widely from normal times. The *cafés* and shops remained open, as also one or two cinematograph exhibitions. One theatre even opened its doors for a short time, but the enterprise quickly failed. Conflicts were continually occurring between the local authorities and the military on the subject of requisitions, the extent of which may be gathered from a report issued in April by M. E. Castelein, Acting President of the Antwerp Chamber of Commerce. According to this report 40,000 tons of cheese, 18,000 tons of maize and 40,000 tons of barley, worth altogether 720,000*l.*, were requisitioned; in addition to linseed of the value of 98,000*l.*, oil cake worth about 200,000*l.*, nitrate of the value of 160,000*l.*, the whole supply of animal and vegetable oils, about 120,000*l.* worth of petroleum and mineral oils, nearly 240,000*l.* worth of wool; a very large supply of cotton, the quantity demanded from one firm alone being of the value of 52,000*l.*; 400,000*l.* worth of rubber; 800,000*l.* worth of copper; 460,000*l.* worth of horse hair; 31,400*l.* worth of ivory; 20,000*l.* worth of wood; 80,000*l.* worth of cocoa; 80,000*l.* worth of rice, and 44,000*l.* worth of wine. The total value of the foregoing was about 3,400,000*l.*; but other estimates placed the value of the requisitions at from 12,000,000*l.* to 16,000,000*l.* Of this not more than 800,000*l.* had been paid. The intention of converting the system of requisitions into a monthly tribute of 1,600,000*l.* was not put into force until the end of the year.

A sinister feature of the German occupation was the large increase in the number of cases of insanity and suicide among the people. The Dutch frontier was strictly guarded, and during part of the year altogether closed; but refugees continued to make their escape by crawling on the ground through the bushes and woods on the frontier which were brilliantly lighted up by German searchlights. All offences against the authorities were visited with overwhelming punishment; the cutting of a telephone wire in Ghent by an unknown hand cost the city 5,000*l.* Notwithstanding exactions and persecutions of this character, it was generally agreed that the behaviour of the officers and troops was good.

Early in the year great excitement was produced in all parts of the world on account of the confinement to his Episcopal palace at Malines of Cardinal Mercier [*v.* English History],

Primate of Belgium. His offence was that of having addressed a pastoral letter to his countrymen in which he stated that the Germans had no legitimate authority in the country and emphasised the connexion between patriotism and religion. The German authorities issued a proclamation forbidding the clergy to read out or publish the pastoral letter.

Large numbers of executions took place from time to time on account of alleged treason and espionage. On March 23 seventeen Belgians were shot at Ghent barracks and during October a much larger number of death sentences were pronounced. Among these was one upon Miss Edith Cavell, an English nurse, who was arrested on August 5, condemned to death on October 11, and shot in the early morning of October 12. The charge upon which she was condemned was that of having harboured in her house French and British soldiers as well as Belgians of military age; and of having facilitated their escape from Belgium. There was no doubt of the truth of these charges, for Miss Cavell freely confessed to them. There was no doubt also that the offence was one punishable with death under the German military code; but the execution of the sentence led to an outburst of indignation and horror throughout the civilised world. Throughout the last day of her trial Mr. Gibson, Secretary of the American Legation, was in constant communication with the Political Department; when the news of the sentence reached him in the evening from unofficial sources he joined the Spanish Minister at Brussels and called upon Baron von der Lancken, the head of the Political Department, with whom they pleaded for the exercise of leniency. But neither Baron von der Lancken nor Baron von Bissing, the Military Governor, could be moved, and at two o'clock in the morning Miss Cavell was shot. She displayed throughout the greatest fortitude and resignation.

Early in the year the Count de Lalaing retired from his post of Belgian Minister in London and was succeeded by M. Paul Hymans, leader of the Liberal party, who had joined the Belgian Government as Minister of State when the Cabinet was reconstructed after the outbreak of war.

The German impositions upon Belgium showed little signs of falling off towards the end of the year. In the middle of November a monthly war contribution of 1,600,000*l.* was laid upon the population until further notice. The payment of the first instalment was due on December 10 and the subsequent payments were to be made not later than the 10th of each month at the Army pay office of the Imperial Government General at Brussels. The end of the year thus witnessed no improvement in the unhappy lot of this oppressed country.

II. LUXEMBURG.

A crisis occurred towards the end of February by the resignation of M. Eyschen, Minister of State; M. Mongenast, Di-

rector General of Finance, and the Chevalier Waha, Director of Public Works and Railways. These three functionaries controlled almost entirely the Government of the Grand Duchy, and M. Eyschen had for many years filled the duties of Minister of State. Although the German newspapers affirmed that the crisis was merely concerned with internal affairs, yet it was generally believed that there had been a difference of opinion with the Grand Duchess, with regard to the treatment inflicted on the country since the German occupation. The crisis continued for about ten days, when M. Eyschen and M. Mongenast were induced to resume their functions, although the Chevalier Waha would not withdraw his resignation. M. Eyschen's new collaborators were M. Victor Thorne who became Minister of Justice, and M. Ernest Leclère who became Minister of the Interior. In the Luxemburg Chamber, the leader of the Liberals attributed the crisis to the Clericalism of the Grand Duchess, who had refused to approve the nomination of two Mayors on the ground that they were free-thinkers. On October 13 the country sustained a severe loss in the death of M. Eyschen.

The neutrality of Luxemburg was nominally respected by the occupying Germans, though penalties were levied upon any attempt to give military information to the French. The sympathies of the people were however strongly on the side of the French; and many of them enlisted voluntarily in the French Army. The Germans insisted on the withdrawal of the Italian representative, when diplomatic relations were ruptured between Rome and Berlin. The Grand Duchy was garrisoned by about 16,000 troops of the German Landsturm; and although the Luxemburg Army consisted only of a few hundred men they preserved many of the forms of independence. They continued to mount guard on the Ducal palace and to keep out the German soldiers with fixed bayonets; moreover they kept a watch upon the frontier to prevent the Germans from taking out of the country articles of which the export was forbidden by the Ducal Government. Nevertheless the Germans continued to exercise entire control over the real government of the country. At the beginning of November they arrested M. Emile Prum on a charge of publishing articles contrary to the policy of the German Catholics and Army commanders.

The Chamber opened on November 10; and after riotous scenes, in the course of which the party of the Left attacked the New Cabinet, the sitting was suspended and the Grand Duchess decreed the dissolution of the Chamber for the first time since 1856. The elections which took place in December resulted in seven gains and two losses to the Government party, which thus secured twenty-five seats. The *bloc* parties (Liberals, Socialists and Independents) occupied twenty-seven seats.

III. THE NETHERLANDS.

The proximity of Holland to the chief belligerent countries rendered the war an object of the most painful and anxious interest to that State; and the political events of the year were exclusively dominated by the efforts taken to preserve neutrality. The expense involved by a permanent state of military mobilisation was so great that it was freely anticipated at the beginning of January that a forced loan would be required to meet it. Happily however this danger was averted by the success of the Netherlands State Loan, announced on January 10. This loan had been issued at par and bore 5 per cent. interest; more than 400,000,000 guilders were subscribed.

Early in the year a Bill was brought into the Second Chamber in order to prolong the duration of military service of the Territorial Army. M. Troelstra, on behalf of the Socialists, brought forward a motion in which he inquired for what reasons the Government had maintained the Army completely mobilised. The Prime Minister, Dr. Cort van der Linden, replied that the reasons could not be given without the publication of confidential communications. The Government insisted that it must receive the confidence of the entire nation if it was to be respected by the belligerent Powers. M. Troelstra's motion was then rejected by 61 votes to 15, and the Chamber agreed to the extension of service in the Territorial Army and Militia until the end of July.

Two cases connected with the neutrality of Holland attracted considerable interest in the course of January. In the first an action was brought against M. Van Rossum for having written a pamphlet insulting the German Emperor and for inciting a boycott of German products, thereby endangering the neutrality of the country; on the latter part of the charge he was acquitted, but on the former he was sentenced to a fine of 300 florins or sixty days' imprisonment. In the second case the editor of the *Telegraaf*, M. J. C. Schroeder, brought an action for damages against an officer who had alleged that the *Telegraaf* was in the pay of the British Government. This action was settled by an apology and withdrawal.

In the middle of March much excitement was aroused by the seizure of the Dutch steamers *Batavier V.* and *Zaanstroom*, which were conducted by the Germans into the port of Zeebrugge. At the same time bombs were thrown from an aeroplane at another Dutch vessel. It appeared that the ships which had been seized were carrying provisions to England; and although there was no contraband on board, the capture of these ships indicated the German intention to cut off if possible all intercourse between England and Holland. Indignation rose still higher on the sinking by a submarine of another Dutch ship, the *Medea*, which was destroyed by gun-fire off Beachy Head after the crew had been

ordered off. On April 1 a Rotterdam ship, the *Schieland*, was blown up in the North Sea, while a week previously the *Mecklenburg*, 2,885 tons, was fired at by a German steam-trawler. On April 14 a still greater insult was offered to the Dutch people by the sinking of the *Katwyk* off the North Hinder Lightship without any notice to the crew, although the Dutch flag was fully displayed. These attacks upon Dutch shipping indicated that the German Government had no scruples as to the methods to be adopted in order to cut off communication between the Netherlands and Great Britain. Great indignation was aroused in Holland and protests were lodged in Berlin. The German Government at once undertook that on proof of the *Katwyk* having been sunk by one of their submarines they would express their sincere regret and pay an indemnity to cover the loss. The excitement in the newspapers thereupon subsided.

On April 27 the International Congress of Women opened at the Hague, and fiery denunciations of war were delivered by several speakers, especially Germans and Austrians. The Congress gave a great ovation to its Belgian members, and finally a resolution of sympathy was passed for the sufferings of all those who were working and fighting for their countries; and calling upon the Governments of the world to put an end to so much effusion of blood. Another demonstration in favour of peace was organised by the Socialists on May 1 and was supported by very large numbers of people.

In the course of May the question of national defence began to occupy still more anxiously the attention of the Dutch people; and the Cabinet brought in Bills for providing for both military and naval extensions. The existing military system gave many exemptions from military service, and the new Bill proposed to call to the colours in successive groups all men between twenty and forty who had previously been exempt, thus releasing from service many of the older men who had been mobilised since the beginning of the war, and also providing more effectually for the defence of the country. The Bill was warmly opposed by the Dutch Socialists, on the grounds that it was a movement in the direction of militarism, and also that it was impossible to train in a short time a new army of half a million men. This opposition caused the Government to modify their Bill by applying it only to men between the ages of twenty and thirty; and in this form it was passed by the Second Chamber on July 23 by fifty-five votes to thirteen, the minority consisting entirely of the Socialists.

The Bill for Naval Extension provided for two new cruisers and four submarines as well as six hydroplanes. This scheme also was criticised on the ground that these vessels could not be ready until long after they were required, if they were required at all. The Government however refused to give way, and the Bill was passed in the Second Chamber on July 15 by forty-six

votes to twenty-one.¹ Shortly afterwards the Socialist party suffered a severe loss by the retirement from public life of its leader, M. Troelstra. A further measure towards securing national defence was taken in July by the establishment of a new Ministry of Munitions.

Meanwhile the British Navy placed very serious restrictions on importations into Holland, for the purpose of preventing goods reaching Germany by that route. A distinguished business man, M. Vanaalst, hit upon the happy idea of forming the "Netherlands Oversea Trust," a committee of business men of the highest integrity, to whom were consigned all goods coming to Holland from abroad, and who furnished a guarantee that no goods so imported should be allowed to pass on to Germany. This body had power to inflict, and in fact did inflict, heavy fines for any breach or evasion of their regulations; and the control which they exercised was on the whole very efficient.

The Budget was introduced on September 21. The great expense of mobilisation caused an estimated deficit of 22,227,000 guilders, which was to be met by the imposition of new taxes and the revision of existing taxes. The Queen in addressing Parliament expressed her profound satisfaction that the country had been preserved from the horrors of war, and pointed out that the heavy new expenditure was necessary for the preservation of their neutrality. Included in the additional expenditure was the appointment of M. Regoud as temporary Minister Extraordinary to the Holy See. Since 1872 there had been no Dutch Legation at the Vatican and the appointment of M. Regoud was strongly opposed by the Liberal Press and in the Chamber. It was understood, however, that the Legation was only to be temporary, and that its purpose was to co-operate with the Pope towards the restoration of peace in Europe as soon as such a course should become practicable.

At the end of October the Minister of Finance introduced in the Second Chamber proposals for new taxation to the amount of 61,000,000 guilders. Among these taxes was one upon foreign securities and one upon Christian names in newly born children, except where one name only was given. A supplementary budget proposed by the Ministry of the Interior asked for an increase of 291,666*l.* for the current year to meet further expenses for refugees from abroad; and at the end of the year there were rumours of another bill for extraordinary war credit amounting to 4,166,000*l.*

The capital question of Dutch politics—*viz.* the maintenance of neutrality—was the subject of further discussion at the beginning of November, when an orange book was published, showing that

¹ The plans submitted by Krupps' works for building the two new cruisers were accepted in the autumn: the English companies expressing their inability to take up the work.

the Government had protested on every occasion against the capture by England of Dutch vessels and had demanded the restoration of the vessels and their cargoes. The orange book likewise replied to criticisms of the retention of telegrams announcing the passage of Zeppelins. It was pointed out that the maintenance of neutrality required the Government to hold back for six hours all information concerning the movements of airships passing within sight of Holland. When these airships infringed Dutch neutrality, however, immediate telegraphic communication was authorised. Such an infringement occurred on October 14 during the return of German airships from their raid upon London and the eastern counties; and in the course of November the German Government addressed to the Dutch Minister in Berlin an apology for this mistake. Another "act of neutrality" was carried out at the beginning of November when the German submarine U8 which had become stranded within Dutch territorial waters without legal excuse was towed to Terschelling and its crew interned for the duration of the war.

Notwithstanding the overwhelming importance of foreign affairs, domestic politics were not altogether suppressed. Early in November a Bill was brought in for the revision of the Constitutional Law, especially in connexion with the franchise of the Second Chamber and the provincial and municipal councils. Under this Bill the principle of proportional representation was recognised, the suffrage was extended to all male citizens who had reached the age of twenty-three and were not excluded by certain disabilities. Moreover the principle of woman's suffrage was adopted, though the extent to which it should be put in practice was left over for arrangement in a subsequent Bill.

On November 13 a state of siege was declared in some Communes of North Holland and in parts of Amsterdam and elsewhere. The question of de-mobilising the Army still continued to be discussed, and at the beginning of December a secret session of the Chamber was held to consider the question. It was understood that the Government had somewhat relaxed the firmness of its attitude in view of the heavy expenditure entailed by permanent mobilisation, and that a committee of inquiry might be appointed to examine into the situation.

The subjects of chief attention at the end of the year were the commercial relations of Holland with Germany and the arrest of M. Schroeder, editor of the *Telegraaf*. That newspaper, which was known as being strongly favourable to the cause of the Allies, had published some time previously an article containing the sentence, "There are in Central Europe a number of scoundrels who are responsible for the war." No proceedings had been instituted for nearly four months, after which period the Public Prosecutor, no doubt at German instigation, brought an action against M. Schroeder for endangering the neutrality of the country

and demanded a sentence of six months' imprisonment. The editor was arrested on the evening of December 4 on account of a further article published on November 27 and entitled "Press Camarilla in Amsterdam." His imprisonment evoked intense sympathy from a large section of the public, and there were loud and general demands for the maintenance of the freedom of the Press. On December 14 he was at length acquitted on the first charge brought against him, and shortly afterwards set at liberty, pending the time when the second charge should be heard.

The other question of public interest revolved chiefly round the proceedings of the Netherlands Oversea Trust and the success with which that body had carried out its undertakings to the Allied Governments. There was no doubt that smuggling on a considerable scale had occurred across the German frontier, and there was every reason to fear that unless this illicit trading could be stopped the Allies would take still more rigorous measures for the limitation of imports into Holland. To this question the Netherlands Oversea Trust addressed itself with great care and in great detail; and as that body was recognised to consist of responsible and honourable men there was every hope that the abuses which had been occurring would be suppressed in future.

IV. SWITZERLAND.

The geographical situation of Switzerland in the very midst of the chief European area of war rendered the question of maintaining neutrality the one dominating factor of Swiss politics during the year. The only other questions which arose were those connected with the preservation of the food supply and of the commerce of the country, which had been affected in various far-reaching ways by the dislocation of business in all the neighbouring countries.

At the beginning of the year there came into force the law of March 26, 1914. Hitherto the Department of Foreign Affairs was in the charge of the President of the Federal Council who was changed every year. Under the new *régime* the Political Department became permanent and comprised three sections, *viz.* Foreign Affairs, Internal Affairs, and Commerce. This department was retained by the outgoing President of the Confederation, M. Hoffmann, whose conduct of affairs during his year of office had been very successful. Early in January a meeting of the Cantonal directors of finance approved the project of the Federal Finance Department for the imposition of a war tax on all fortunes of over 400*l.* and incomes of over 100*l.* The tax was voted unanimously by the Federal Assembly on April 15. Its yield was estimated at 2,800,000*l.*; which was to be used to meet the cost of the mobilisation which was then reckoned at more than 8,000,000*l.*

It was necessary that the new war tax, after being unanimously passed by the Federal Assembly, should be submitted to a re-

ferendum of the people. The leaders of all the chief parties appealed to the people to accept this necessary burden, and on June 6 the scheme was carried by 445,000 votes against 27,000. The result was hailed as a striking proof of the patriotism of all classes of the people, for such an enormous majority had been hitherto unknown in Federal votes.

On April 17 M. Motta, President of the Swiss Confederation, reaffirmed the imperative necessity to Switzerland of the maintenance of neutrality; and at the beginning of June the Federal Council adopted a new order under which penalties were imposed upon individuals whose acts were of an un-neutral character. The most important provision of this new order was one establishing a censorship of the Press; and on this proposal a very animated debate took place in the National Council on June 16. Many deputies protested against what they regarded as a flagrant breach of liberty in a country which was at peace with the whole world. In reply to these criticisms M. Hoffmann said that it was intolerable that private citizens should be permitted to depart from the neutrality which was imposed upon the Government in the best interests of the country. There appeared to be a broad difference of opinion between the representative of French and those of German Switzerland; but ultimately the project was approved in spite of widespread opposition. A meeting was at once called of representatives of the Swiss Press, who sent a deputation to the Federal Council to record its unanimous request that the project should be dropped. The Government, however, declined to abandon its proposal; it appointed a committee of five to undertake the control of the Press, two being appointed by the Association of the Swiss Press and three by the Federal Council. The new order came into force on the last day of July.

The maintenance of imports necessary for the country became in the middle of the year a matter of very grave concern to the Government. On the one hand the Allies refused to allow goods to be imported into Switzerland unless they had some guarantee that they would not be passed on to Germany or Austria. On the other hand the Germans threatened to withhold from Switzerland various necessary articles if their wishes were not complied with. In the middle of June the Government announced its intention of establishing an import trust whose duties would be to ensure an adequate supply of raw material for industry, while yet to avoid any undue limitation of economic liberty; and to authorise the use of imported materials for the manufacture of articles which might be freely exported so long as they did not subserve any military end. The necessity for action of some sort was strongly impressed by the shortage of the food supply; for the daily rations of the Army had already been reduced from 300 grammes to 200. For some time, how-

ever, it appeared that the formation of the trust would be impossible; since Germany insisted on a proper return of commodities for the coal which they supplied to Switzerland and which was absolutely necessary for the continued operation of the State railways. The delay of negotiations led a large number of private firms in the course of August to establish private import trusts on their own account at Geneva, Zurich, St. Gall and Basel, which undertook to give the guarantees demanded by the Allies. At length the difficulties raised by the German propaganda against any restriction on exports were overcome, and on September 22 the Federal Council approved the creation of a Society for Economic Surveillance which regulated imports of all commodities into the country on the same principle as that of the Netherlands Oversea Trust. The administration of this society consisted of fifteen members of French nationality and their names were announced at the beginning of October.

On August 1 the national *fête* was celebrated throughout the country; and M. Motta, speaking at Bellizona, again declared that the neutrality of Switzerland must be loyally observed and that for this purpose the continued mobilisation of the Army on the frontiers was a necessary precaution which constituted no threat to any of the neighbouring nations. The President of the Confederation took a further opportunity in a speech at Geneva six weeks later of expressing the determination of the whole country to resist any attempt upon its neutrality from whatever side.

In the first week of September an International Congress of Socialists was held at Berne and was attended by delegates from nearly every country except France. English representatives were present on behalf of the Independent Labour Party; and, although all the proceedings as well as the fact of the meeting itself were kept secret, it was understood that resolutions were passed against annexations and in favour of the re-constitution of nationalities and systematic and simultaneous disarmament.

On November 15 the six-hundredth anniversary of the Battle of Morgarten, in which the confederates of the three cantons of Switzerland freed themselves from the Austrian yoke, was celebrated throughout the country. Dr. Motta, speaking at Schwytz, again emphasised the firm intention of the humblest citizen to uphold the neutrality of their country. He appealed to every Swiss to avoid anything in the nature of internal dissension.

In the middle of November the Swiss Import Trust began its work. It was formed at Berne under the title of the "*Société Suisse de Surveillance Economique*," and thenceforward became the only authorised consignee for all commodities on the lists of contraband and restricted exports of the allied countries. Articles could only be consigned to this society with its written consent.

The desire for an early peace which existed throughout Switzerland was naturally felt most strongly by the Socialists;

and in December the Socialist party of the National Council submitted an interpolation to the Federal Council inquiring whether the Government was prepared to offer its good offices towards procuring an armistice and preparing peace negotiations. In the National Council M. Greulich opened the discussion of this interpolation and received his reply on behalf of the Federal Council from M. Hoffmann, chief of the Political Department. While recognising the sentiments which animated the interpolators, the Federal Council were of opinion that no good result could be hoped from such a step, and indeed that it might be ill received. So long as public opinion in belligerent countries was so much opposed to peace, foreign intervention might be regarded as inopportune and unfriendly; nevertheless the Federal Council undertook to follow closely the course of events and to do its best to offer any mediation for which an opportunity might subsequently arise. With this statement M. Greulich declared himself satisfied.

Liechtenstein.—This little principality situated between Austria and the Swiss canton of St. Gall had been recognised as a neutral country at the outbreak of war. In the month of June, however, its neutrality was infringed by the action of the Austrian Government, which imposed upon it a postal censorship and thus included it in the Austro-Italian theatre of war.

V. SPAIN.

As in all parts of Europe the progress of the war was the chief political subject of interest in Spain. The King and Government were determined to do all in their power to maintain the neutrality of the country; but it cannot be said that the sentiments of the people were of a neutral character. On the contrary the country was sharply divided into two parties, one of which, including all the Republicans and some of the Liberals, favoured the cause of the Allies, while the other, including the Conservative and Clerical parties, espoused the cause of Germany. The sentiments of the latter were in part determined by admiration of the German military system; but as a rule it would be more correct to say that dislike of France rather than fondness of Germany was the chief factor at work. The Germans carried on throughout the country very intense propaganda directed both against France and Great Britain; they even published newspapers in Spanish and they caused posters to be affixed upon walls reminding the people of the British occupation of Gibraltar. In a discussion in the Cortes on January 21 two ex-Ministers severely criticised the inactivity of the Government in the presence of the European conflict, but a vote of confidence was adopted, the minority abstaining.

On the Kaiser's birthday, a large number of German sympathisers left their cards at the German Consulate, and a few

days later the Franco-phil party made a counter-move by paying the same compliment to the French and British Embassies, these visitors including many Liberal deputies, and members of the Republican party. On February 2 in the Senate Señor Dato, President of the Council, reaffirmed the neutrality of Spain and impressed upon the country the necessity of avoiding any manifestations of partiality.

In the early spring a very serious rise in the price of bread caused acute distress and disturbances in many parts of the country. In the middle of February large numbers of unemployed paraded the streets of Seville demanding work; and early in March the Council of Ministers met to decide what measures should be taken. A note was communicated to the Press in order to allay panic, and to declare that the reserves of wheat were quite sufficient for the immediate needs of the country. Señor Dato attributed the scarcity to the action of speculators, and the Government issued an order for the permission of the free importation of corn and flour into the country up to the end of June. This somewhat critical situation was originally due to excessive exportation to the belligerent countries; in certain parts of the country the bakers' shops were attacked by women who carried off the bread by force.

Diplomatic relations with Mexico were ruptured in the middle of March. General Carranza dismissed Señor Caro, the Spanish Minister, on account of the unpopularity which he had incurred with the mob through a mistaken belief that he had interfered in Mexican politics. Señor Dato however declined to accede to General Carranza's invitation to nominate a new representative, alleging as his reason the anarchy and crimes which were taking place in Mexico.

The month of April was chiefly notable for a speech by Count Romanones, the Liberal ex-Prime Minister, at Palma, in Majorca, in the course of which he declared that the possession of Tangier was the aspiration of all political parties. This statement was warmly endorsed two days later by Señor Maura, leader of the Conservative party, though both statesmen advocated a closer *entente* with France and Great Britain. All the Spanish newspapers enthusiastically welcomed the declaration of Spanish interests in Tangier; but Señor Dato hastened to explain that Señors Maura and Romanones were expressing only their personal opinions and that the Government had no intention of taking any action to which objection might be raised by France or Great Britain.

In the middle of June a Ministerial crisis was precipitated by the complete failure of a loan of 30,000,000*l.* of which not much more than 10 per cent. was subscribed. The Cabinet immediately tendered its resignation, but the King signed a decree ordering Señor Dato to remain in power. In the Congress on

June 23 Count Romanones deplored the abstention of capital, and advocated the suspension of the constitutional guarantees; but to this suggestion Señor Dato declined to accede. He expressed his view as to the danger of allowing public meetings for the purpose of expressing sympathy with any of the belligerents in Europe. The Liberal party nevertheless continued to press for freedom of public meetings.

Early in August a meeting of Radicals was held at Barcelona to protest against the limitation of public meetings. One of the speakers demanded intervention in favour of the Allies; whereupon the Government delegate immediately suspended the meeting; revolver shots were fired and several persons injured. As the year went on the cleavage of opinion between the Ultra-Montanes and the Interventionist Radicals became still more pronounced.

The failure of the internal loan had permanently weakened the position of the Government, and early in October there were further rumours of a Cabinet reconstruction. These rumours were at first denied, but on October 25 Señor Dato announced that Señors Ugarte and Collantes had resigned their Portfolios of Public Works and Public Instruction respectively; and that they had been succeeded by Señor Espada, former Under-Secretary of State for Finance and by Señor Andrade, Governor of Barcelona; the rest of the Cabinet remained as before.

The Houses of Parliament resumed their sittings on November 6, and M. Gonzales Besada was elected President of the Congress by 255 votes to 2. In his opening address he insisted upon the necessity for the maintenance of Spanish neutrality. The Budget which was immediately introduced showed a deficit of 64,371,122 pesetas, the expenditure having grown to 1,470,849,190 pesetas. The most urgent topic of discussion, however, was the Government proposals for military reform; involving the establishment of a general staff, the reduction in the number and the age limit of officers on active service and the increase in the production of munitions. The proposed reduction in the age limit caused special dissatisfaction as favouring younger officers and affecting existing interests; and Count Romanones announced his intention of opposing the Government Bill. This he succeeded in doing to some purpose; for the debate which took place in the Congress on December 6 was so definitely antagonistic to the Government that Señor Dato straightway visited the King and tendered his resignation. The demand of the Liberals was that the projects for military reform should be deferred till after the consideration of various economic questions; and to this the Government agreed only on the understanding that the principle of the reforms should at first be approved. The leaders of the Opposition replied by a demand that the projects for military and economic reform should at all events be considered simul-

taneously. But Señor Dato insisted upon the postponement of the Budget until the military question should have been settled.

The composition of the new Cabinet was announced on December 9. Count Romanones became Prime Minister and the other offices were distributed as follows: Interior, Señor Alba; Foreign Affairs, Señor Villanueva; Finance, Señor Urzaiz; Public Instruction, Señor Burell; Justice, Señor Barroso; War, General Luque; Marine, Vice-Admiral Miranda; Public Works, Señor Amos Salvador. Count Romanones at once announced that the new Cabinet would continue the policy of its predecessors as regards the maintenance of a strict neutrality in the European War. The new Government would pursue a definitely Liberal policy and would endeavour to settle the question of military re-organisation in connexion with the national defence.

To that question the new Government at once turned. General Luque announced his intention of forming a General Staff, and this intention was carried out by a Royal decree a few days before the end of the year. The powers of the General Staff, which were thoroughly discussed in the Cortes, were very large; but the new body was not independent of the War Office or of Parliament. The War Minister expressed his opinion on the extreme urgency of the proposed reforms, saying that he differed altogether from the optimists who thought that peace was near at hand. The end of the year came while these questions were still being warmly debated throughout the country.

VI. PORTUGAL.

Portugal was almost the only country in Europe where internal affairs predominated over the compelling interest of the European War. The unity of the country was destroyed by intestine discord and revolution; though the success of the disintegrating tendencies must be attributed in part to the German propaganda, directed towards the enfeeblement and disunion of the country. The democratic party which was in power at the beginning of the year owed its majority in the National Council largely to the support of the Carbonaria or secret societies; and widespread discontent existed in the military party owing to the tendencies of these societies to interfere in matters of military discipline.

A climax was reached towards the end of January when a non-commissioned officer boasted of his success in obtaining the removal to another district of his captain whom he disliked. A deputation of officers made a protest to the Minister of War. The failure of their protest determined them to approach the President of the Republic, but on the way they were arrested—the Government declaring that their movement was of a seditious and monarchical character. Thereupon many other officers of the Lisbon garrison came in and surrendered their swords, asking

to be considered as under arrest; and widespread discontent was manifested throughout army circles. The tension became so acute that the Ministry tendered its resignation, and the President called upon General Pimenta de Castro to form a Cabinet. In the President's letter to General Castro dated January 23 he said that he found himself once again compelled to intervene in the accursed political confusion into which the country had been thrown by sectarian passions and habits of intolerance. "Unless some immediate and firm action is taken against the conflagration which has long been smouldering among the factions as though it were their desire to bring us back to corruption and misery, we are lost." He called upon the General to form a non-party Cabinet which should suppress the effort to create antagonism between the Republic and the Army, and should govern independently of party politics until the general election took place in June. The formation of the new Cabinet was announced on January 28, and consisted chiefly of moderate Conservative Republicans. General Pimenta de Castro was Premier, Minister of War and of Foreign Affairs; Senhor Xavier Brito, Minister of Marine; Senhor Alves Moreira, Minister of Justice; Senhor Goulard Madeiros, Minister of Public Instruction; Senhor Nunes Ponte, Minister of Public Works; Senhor Gomes Texeira, Minister of the Interior; Senhor Santos Viegas, Minister of Finance; and Senhor Theophile Trindade, Minister for the Colonies.

On February 24 a decree was promulgated fixing the date of the general elections for June 6, when the military party would be strengthened by the new franchise, including army officers and sergeants, instead of March 7, the date previously fixed. The democratic deputies and senators nevertheless attempted to hold a meeting of Congress on March 4, but the Government surrounded Parliament with a cordon of the Republican Guard: and Senhor Affonso Costa with ninety Democratic members held a meeting in a private house where they voted a motion to the effect that the President and Ministry had placed themselves outside the law and the Constitution. The Democratic organ, the *Mundo*, violently attacked the Government and the Dictatorship of General de Castro, and threats of violence and revolution were freely uttered. The Democratic group issued instructions to the deputies and senators of its party, calling upon them to disregard the decrees of the Government in so far as they modified existing laws, to incite the public to follow their example, and to regard all dictatorial acts of the Government as having no validity. The fruit of these instructions was seen in the middle of April, when the Lisbon Municipal Council declined to regard Ministerial decrees as legal, and was dissolved. An administrative committee was then nominated by the Government, but in the middle of May the revolution finally broke out. The attempts of the

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Ministry to suppress the corruption and tyranny of the Democratic party, had begun to cause satisfaction to the Monarchists and corresponding misgiving to the bulk of the people. The Carbonaria were mobilised, and firing broke out at a given signal on May 14 in the streets of Lisbon, supported by an insurrectionary movement in the Navy which proceeded to shell the city. The Army failed to give its promised support and General de Castro resigned office and was taken prisoner. After some hours of street fighting a new Cabinet was formed under Senhor Joao Chagas who had previously occupied the position of Ambassador at Paris; within a few hours of this announcement Senhor Chagas was shot through the head by a senator of the late Parliament. His assailant Joao Freitas narrowly escaped lynching by the public, and as he was being marched off under arrest he was himself shot dead by a soldier.

The success of the *coup d'etat* once again placed the Democratic party in power at the expense of about 100 killed and 300 wounded. Senhor Chagas quickly recovered from his wound, and a Provisional Government was formed in which Dr. Jose de Castro became Minister of War, and the other members included Senhores Manuel Monteiro, Teixeira de Queiroz, Varros Queiro, Paulo Falcao, Jorge Pereira, Fernandes Costa and Magalhaes Lima. Admiral Xavier Brito was imprisoned on a charge of ordering a submarine to sink the vessels which were shelling the capital. The presence of Spanish warships in the Tagus excited some popular apprehension of Spanish interference, but all suspicions were allayed by the statement of Señor Dato at Madrid, to the effect that Spain had no intention of intervening in Portuguese affairs.

The President immediately ratified the appointment of the new Provisional Ministry, and on May 23 he signed a decree calling an extraordinary session of Congress for May 26. On the 27th he communicated to both Chambers a formal petition of resignation of the office which he had held for nearly four years. Two days later the Congress again assembled and elected Senhor Theophilo Braga by 98 votes to 1 as President of the Republic for the remaining few months of the term of office of ex-President Manoel Arriaga; the Conservatives taking no part in the session. It will be remembered that Senhor Braga had been the first President of the Republic after the overthrow of the Monarchy in 1910. In his message to the President of Congress he expressed his abhorrence of dictatorships and his adhesion to Democratic and Parliamentary institutions. General Pimenta de Castro, the late Prime Minister, with two other ex-Ministers, with Senhor Machado dos Santos, leader of the Reformist party, were deported to the Azores on June 11.

On June 13 the general elections took place and resulted in a large Democratic majority; and on June 16 the Ministry re-

signed and the President called upon Senhor Jose de Castro to form a new Cabinet. Senhor de Castro himself took the Portfolios of War and Marine, the other offices being filled as follows: Professor Ferreira da Silva, Minister of Interior; Senhor Catanho de Menezes, Minister of Justice; Captain Victorino Guimaraes, Minister of Finance; Senhor Augusto Soares, Minister of Foreign Affairs; Senhor Manuel Monteiro Fomento; Captain Norton de Mattos, Minister of Colonies; and Professor Lopes Martins, Minister of Education. On July 23 some reconstitution took place as a result of which Dr. Jose Castro relinquished the Portfolio of War and was succeeded by Captain Norton de Mattos. Senhor Rodriguez Gaspar became Minister for the Colonies.

The Congress opened on June 25, and the Prime Minister took the opportunity to re-affirm the intention of the Government to abide by its friendship with its ally England. The chief of the Evolutionist party announced his opposition to the new Government, and demanded justice for General de Castro, but the sitting was suspended until he and his supporters had left the hall. On July 9 a Treaty of Commerce with England was ratified after a long discussion.

Portugal temporarily lost the services of one of her most eminent statesmen by the illness of Senhor Affonso Costa on July 14, as a result of a tram accident which fractured his skull. It was to his influence more than that of any other person that the revolutionary movement was due which overthrew the Government of General de Castro; and as head of the Democratic party he had always been an advocate of intervention to the fullest possible extent in the European War.

On August 6 Senhor Bernardino Machado was elected President of the Republic by 134 to 45. The term of the previous President expired on October 4, and the new President entered into office on October 5 for the Constitutional period of four years. In taking up his duties he referred to the difficult situation in which Portugal had been placed by the war in which several of her friends and one of her allies were engaged. He appealed to the people to place their collective duty above internal dissensions. Senhor Machado was sixty-four years of age and started life as a Professor in the University of Coimbra. As a statesman he belonged to the Republican party, and was one of the principal leaders of the revolution which overthrew the monarchy. His election to the Presidency was construed in the country as a definite adoption of the policy of intervention.

But the internal dissensions of Portugal were not yet over. On November 12 Senhor Ferreira, Minister of the Interior, resigned from his office on account of his disagreement with the Premier over a projected reformation of the police force. A few days later the Prime Minister presented the resignation of the Cabinet to the President of the Republic and after some remon-

strance it was accepted. Senhor de Castro had never been a regular member of any political party. It was partly for this reason that he had appeared the proper man to act temporarily as Prime Minister after the revolution of May 14. After the large Democratic majority returned by the general election, and after the establishment of President Machado in office, Senhor de Castro felt that his mission was concluded and he had only consented to remain in office during the illness of Senhor Affonso Costa, leader of the Democratic party. Before long, however, he found himself in opposition to the Revolutionaries of the preceding May; and as Senhor Costa was now restored to health Senhor de Castro saw no further reason for retaining office. The new cabinet which was completed on November 29 was constituted as follows: Premier and Finance Minister, Senhor Affonso Costa; Interior, Senhor Almeida Ribeiro; Justice, Senhor Catanho de Menezes; Public Works, Senhor Antonio Maria Silva; War, Senhor Norton de Mattos; Marine, Senhor Victor Hugo Azevedo Coutinho; Colonies, Senhor Rodrigues Gaspar; Education, Senhor Ferreira Simas; Foreign Affairs, Senhor Augusto Soares.

This Cabinet was entirely representative of the Democratic party. There had indeed been some idea of forming a Coalition National Ministry, but the Unionists and Evolutionists declined to enter such a Ministry except in the case of active participation by Portugal in the war. Such participation was indeed desired by many parties in the State, and if it had been formally demanded by England a National Ministry would probably have been formed. The new Prime Minister in presenting the Cabinet to Parliament on December 2 expressed their intention of placing national interests before party considerations and of upholding the international policy already adopted. The Army and Navy would be placed in a state of immediate preparation for war, the Lisbon police would be reorganised, budgetary equilibrium would be established and the floating debt consolidated.

At the opening of the ordinary session of Parliament General Correa Barreto was re-elected President of the Upper Chamber, and M. Manuel Monteiro was elected President of the National Council in place of Senhor Azevedo Coutinho who had become Minister of Marine. At the end of this eventful year internal peace seemed at length in great part restored.

VII. DENMARK.

The Socialist congress of neutral countries opened at Copenhagen on January 18, but the only nations represented were Denmark, Sweden, Norway and Holland. M. Stauning, President of the Danish Socialist associations, delivered the opening address. He dwelt with sorrow upon the terrible catastrophe which had overtaken the civilised world, and asked how this state of affairs could be reconciled with their views of humanity, civilisation and

culture. Letters were received from the Presidents of the Socialist parties of Switzerland and Germany, as also from London and France. The meeting followed no line that was antagonistic to the belligerent Powers, but confined itself to a demonstration in favour of peace and liberty. On the following day the congress came to an end after passing unanimously three resolutions. The first declared the duty resting upon all Socialist parties of working for the restoration of peace under conditions which might serve as a basis for international disarmament and the democratisation of foreign politics; and for the furtherance of this end it called upon the International Socialist Bureau at Berne to convene a meeting of Socialist parties as soon as negotiations of peace were commenced. The second resolution called upon the Socialist parties of neutral countries to press upon their respective Governments the duty of mediation as soon as any opportunity should present itself. The third protested against the arrest of five members of the Russian Duma who had united for the purpose of sending a report to the Congress at Copenhagen.

The chief matters of political interest at the beginning of the year were concerned with the various attempts at smuggling into Germany. In one case of an attempt to smuggle copper, the principal was sentenced to two months' imprisonment with prison fare; and a consignment of guns to Bulgaria was held up by the Government owing to the doubt whether they would ever reach their destination. The Budget was passed in the Folkething on March 16; it showed a surplus of 2,000,000 kroner or more than 100,000*l.*; but the reporter stated that this surplus would be converted into a deficit before the end of the financial year. M. Wulff on behalf of the Conservatives insisted upon a policy of strict neutrality combined with readiness to maintain it if necessary by force of arms.

By far the most important event of the year, however, was the inauguration of the third Danish Constitution, which gave the vote to all men and all women who had reached the age of twenty-five years. Under the second constitution of 1866, the suffrage for the Folkething was limited to honest and independent men aged thirty or upwards; and the effect of the new Bill was to include women and servants. The new Constitution provided also for the election on a basis of proportional representation of a number of new members to the Folkething in addition to the 114 returned by the existing constituencies. The change affected also the Constitution of the Landsting; its numbers were raised from 66 to 72. Of these 18 were to be nominated by the old Landsting before its extinction; while the remaining 54 were to be returned on a thoroughly democratic system of proportional representation. Nomination of members by the King was altogether abolished; and women were empowered not only to vote in the elections both

for the Landsting and the Folkething, but also became eligible to sit in both Houses. Moreover the old differentiation between electors, which gave the most representation to the landowners and highly taxed voters, was done away with. Denmark thus acquired what is probably the most liberal constitution in Europe. The new scheme, however, was not to come in force until 1916, and the extension of the suffrage was to take place gradually, not being finally completed for some years. The new constitution was voted on April 23 and again by a new Parliament on June 5, the anniversary of the first Danish Constitution of 1849. On the same day it was signed by the King, in whose honour a large procession of women filed past the royal palace. It should be mentioned that two months previously King Christian had undergone an operation for intestinal fissure, but his recovery had been rapid and complete. The adoption of the new Constitution marked the triumph after fifteen years' struggle over the opposition of the Right, and was in the main the result of a compromise between that party and the Radicals and Socialists of the Left, under the immediate influence of the King.

It was natural that the sympathies of the great majority of the Danish people should be on the side of the Allies. Nevertheless, like all the other minor States of Europe, Denmark was determined to maintain her neutrality; and in fact the Radical Ministry of Herr Zahle was composed largely of pronounced anti-militarists and pacifists. On June 17 the Folkething unanimously adopted a resolution in support of the Government and the policy of neutrality.

However alarming the war might be to the Danish people, it had no adverse effect upon their trade; and the people at large as in the other two Scandinavian countries often found themselves in possession of much more ready money than they were accustomed to. The shipping trade in particular was exceedingly prosperous, and on August 12 the Government announced its intention of placing an extra war tax of 20 per cent. on surplus shipping profits.

One of the most unpleasant incidents of the year was the breach of Danish neutrality by the German torpedo-boat which fired on the British submarine E13 in territorial waters [*v. History of the War*]. The matter was settled however as far as Denmark was concerned by expressions of sincere regrets and apologies on the part of the German Government, together with an assurance that the instructions already given to commanders of German vessels to respect neutrality would be again impressed upon them. At the beginning of September the Inter-Parliamentary Union of the three Scandinavian countries held its meeting at Copenhagen, and unanimously passed a resolution, proposed by the Swedish delegate, expressing the determination of the three countries to continue the strict maintenance of their neutrality.

On October 5 Herr Brandes, Minister of Finance, submitted to the Folkething his Budget for 1915-16. The revenue was estimated at 132,914,132 kr. and the expenditure at 118,210,979 kr., leaving a surplus of 14,703,153 kr. It was estimated that the increase of revenue from State institutions would be 1,500,000 kr. and from taxes 7,000,000 kr. The increase of expenditure for public debt charges was put at 5,000,000 kr., and it was anticipated that this sum would be covered by the tax on income and fortunes. The expense of maintaining a large part of the Army on a war basis was not included in the Budget; but this expense was mainly accountable for a deficit of 34,300,000 kr. in the final accounts for 1914-15.

During the second half of November an official account was issued of a new Anglo-Danish Commercial Agreement for the purpose of ensuring that commodities imported into the country should not be exported to Germany. The agreement was made between the English Foreign Office and two bodies of Danish traders who covered between them nearly the whole of Danish industry. These were the Merchants' Guild of Copenhagen and the Industrial Association of Denmark. The precise terms of the agreement were not published, a circumstance which caused considerable annoyance in the British Parliament (*v. English History*). But it was stated in Denmark that the agreement was signed on November 19 and came into force almost at once as regards goods shipped from British ports; while goods from other ports were to be allowed to pass the British blockade lines after December 21. The Danish Committee guaranteed that the goods would not be re-exported except to neutral countries and the Allies of Great Britain. In every individual case of re-export, the written permission of the Committee was indispensable, while as regards Norway and Sweden re-export in regard to many articles was not permitted at all. Contraventions were punishable with heavy fines up to 10,000 kr. (about 550*l.*) and twice the value of the imported goods. Moreover the name of any offending importer was to be published in Denmark and immediately communicated to the British Government. It was hoped in Denmark that if this arrangement could be satisfactorily carried out the country would be to a great extent relieved from the severe inconveniences caused by the British blockade of Germany.

VIII. SWEDEN.

The politics of Sweden during the year were dominated by the events proceeding in Europe, and by a determination to take all possible measures for the preservation of neutrality. The new session of the Riksdag was opened by King Gustav in person. The King impressed the fact that Sweden had hitherto been able to maintain the neutrality agreed upon at the beginning of the

war; but the maintenance of this neutrality had demanded military measures which involved considerable sacrifices. It was, however, necessary that these sacrifices should be cheerfully borne, for Sweden must continue to maintain her military forces intact even at the cost of serious economic suffering. The King recalled the convention entered into with Norway at the beginning of the European War, and the interview of the three Kings at Malmö which had resulted in strengthening the position of Sweden. He went on to express the hope that the happy relations between the three States would be still further consolidated, and he added that although he had every hope of safeguarding their neutrality, considerable efforts would have to be made if the security of the country was to be maintained and the economic consequences of the war mitigated.

The Budget for 1915-16 showed a total of 337,037,000 kroner (about 17,000,000*l.*), as compared with 384,826,000 kr. for the preceding year. Army expenditure amounted to 62,886,000 kr. or about 2,500,000 kr. more, and Navy expenditure 34,390,700 kr., also about 2,500,000 kr. more than in 1914-15. M. Afzelius, President of the Upper Chamber, said that the entire Swedish nation knew that the thoughts of the Sovereign represented their own in the course of these troublous times. The path which they had marked out for themselves was not one of carelessness, irresolution or fear, but was the path of a firm will for right and loyalty; there was no question of attacking the rights of others, but only of preparing to defend their own rights. This path was not free from dangers or sacrifices, and a short-sighted wisdom might perhaps say that it led to no advantage. But for a people jealous of its honour, it was quite sufficient to preserve its own self-respect. And it was perhaps not too much to hope that when the noise of the strife should be silenced, and when law resumed its place in the world, the approbation and esteem of other nations would go out to the country which had followed this line of conduct.

Although a strict neutrality was the official policy of Sweden there was a very considerable section of the people who sympathised with Germany, and indeed demanded active intervention on the side of that country. This feeling arose mainly from the traditional fear of Russia whom they had been taught to regard as the oppressor of Finland, Poland and the Ukraine. The Germanophil Press accordingly commented with indignation on the British interference with Swedish trade; and the prohibition by Great Britain of the export of coal to Sweden threatened at one time to bring about a crisis between the two countries. In order to find if possible a remedy for these difficulties an English delegation was sent to Stockholm at the beginning of July to discuss with Swedish delegates what measures could be taken. The conference was opened by M. Wallenberg, Minister of

Foreign Affairs. An arrangement was concluded by which a certain quantity of cotton should be allowed to leave British ports for Sweden under a guarantee that none of it should pass on to Germany. A special licence was granted also at the beginning of August for the exportation to Sweden of 100,000 tons of coal; the negotiations, however, with a view to reaching a settlement on the general question of interference with Swedish commerce, issued in no satisfactory conclusion, and at the end of October the conference broke up.

On May 3 the King delivered a speech in which he affirmed the paramount necessity for Sweden of maintaining strict neutrality; but in the following month the Queen paid a visit to Germany where she was enthusiastically greeted by the populace and received a visit from the Empress. The views of the interventionists were officially condemned by M. Wallenberg on June 27 and his pronouncement was warmly endorsed by M. Branting, the leader of the Socialist party, on August 15, at a great meeting of 15,000 people at Stockholm. On the same day M. Staaf, a former Prime Minister, denounced the intrigues of a small party which was endeavouring to excite public opinion against England. On September 10 the Minister of Finance condemned the action of various Swedish firms in subscribing to the German war loan, but on September 20 it was announced that five of the leading Swedish banks would grant a loan to German banks of 40,000,000 kr. in return for the importation into Sweden from Germany of coal and a number of other things previously prohibited; on the usual understanding that none of these articles should be permitted to leave the country.

Political life in Sweden suffered a severe loss in the death of M. Karl Staaf, the former Prime Minister and leader of the Liberal party. His party, together with the Social Democrats under the leadership of M. Branting, constituted the majority of the Chamber, where he exercised a great influence and was steadily opposed to all schemes of political adventure.

During the later months of the year a definite attempt was made by the Liberal and Socialist parties to antagonise the pro-German propaganda of the "activists." Three members of the Socialist party were suspended from membership by the heads of the party on the ground that they had taken part in such propaganda; and at the meeting in November of the Swedish Liberal Federation a resolution was unanimously passed denouncing the activists. Seeing that the Liberals occupied more than a third of the total number of seats in both Houses of Parliament, and seeing that in the Lower House they were together with the Socialists in a majority approaching two to one over the Conservatives, it seemed as though the alarm caused in several of the Allied countries by the pro-German feeling in Sweden was scarcely justified. In the resolution above mentioned, the Liberal Federa-

tion condemned not only the entire activist movement but deplored any partisan tone in public discussion. The pro-German feeling was most pronounced in Court circles; at the end of November the Queen of Sweden again paid a visit to Germany.

The British efforts to arrange with Sweden import agreements similar to those established in the Netherlands and other neutral countries met with less success than elsewhere. A *modus vivendi* was indeed established between the Swedish and British Governments, whereby licences for goods on the British prohibited export list were granted by the British Government in favour of Sweden in return for licences granted by the Swedish Government for the transit of goods on the Swedish prohibited export list through Sweden to Russia or Great Britain. In pursuance of this scheme the British and Russian Legations at Stockholm arranged with a Swedish firm, the Transito Company, to undertake responsibility that goods sent in transit should be delivered in Russia and Great Britain. When this agreement became known, however, considerable dissatisfaction was expressed in trading circles and the Press. In the second week of December M. Hammarskjöld, the Prime Minister, referred to the necessity of devising special measures to prevent the formation of trusts tending to monopolise trade, or by private arrangements to go against the accepted policy of the country and evade the regulations imposed by the Government for the maintenance of its neutrality. A few days later the Cabinet decided upon the introduction of a Bill into the Riksdag, under which it became a criminal offence for any Swedish subject to participate in the formation of a trust of this nature. At the end of the year, however, it was not believed that this Bill would be likely to affect the arrangement made with the Transito Company.

IX. NORWAY.

If the sympathies of Sweden were predominantly in favour of the Germans, those of Norway inclined as a rule more towards the Allies and especially towards the French. At the end of January M. Konow, former Prime Minister, addressed a large meeting in which indignation was expressed at the horrors committed in Belgium and France, the destruction of Louvain and Rheims, and other breaches of the laws of war. The dislike entertained in Norway for the Germans was further accentuated by the remarkable procedure of Count d'Oberndorff, the German Minister, who published towards the end of May in all the newspapers of Christiania two anonymous letters which had been addressed to him describing his nation as pirates, assassins, and the king of butchers. The publication of these letters was intended as a sharp reprimand to the Norwegians and a threat of losing German good-will. The newspapers expressed great surprise at Count d'Oberndorff's attack on Norwegian public men;

the *Borgenbladet* declined to publish the Minister's communication, but most of the others contented themselves with ridiculing his haste and tactlessness.

The submarine attack of Germany upon Great Britain affected Norwegian shipping in common with that of all other neutral countries. One of the earliest vessels to be sunk was the Norwegian steamer *Belridge*; and at the beginning of June the German Government expressed regret for this action and agreed to pay compensation, decided by a committee of Norwegian and German experts. But Norwegian neutrality was also accidentally infringed by the British Fleet, which captured the *Pallas* within Norwegian territorial waters. For this act an expression of regret was tendered by the British Foreign Office on July 20. The Germans again apologised to Norway early in August for the sinking of the steamer *Minerva*, which had been mistaken for an English ship, and in this case again damages were paid. Germany refused however to recognise any responsibility for sinking the *Svein Jarl* on July 9, as the steamer had no indication of its neutrality. But as twelve of the crew had perished they agreed to pay compensation as evidence of friendly feeling. The British Government similarly in October agreed to release the crew of the German steamer *Friedrich Arp* which was alleged by Norway to have been sunk in their territorial waters.

The internal politics of Norway were not characterised by any event of importance. In July the Storting adopted, notwithstanding the opposition of the Socialists, a proposal for reducing the age of military service to twenty, and for prolonging service in the reserve by eight to twelve years. In the middle of August a Government monopoly was established of corn, food material, lighting, forage and manure; and authority was given to regulate the supplies of the provinces. The elections took place in October and the new Storting gave a slightly increased majority for the Government. The Radicals and the Left constituting the Government party won 78 seats as against 76 in the old Storting. The Conservatives, the Right and Liberal party consisted of 21 members as against 24; the Socialists 20 as against 23, and 4 Independents were returned. The Cabinet therefore remained in power with its position considerably strengthened. The result was considered as disappointing to the manœuvres of the German agents who had attempted to work on Norwegian public opinion.

On December 19 Mr. Ford arrived in his peace ship from the United States. The following day a meeting was held in Christiania for the purpose of advocating peace on the basis of *status quo ante bellum*. Although there was a fairly large audience, and the American Minister was present, the crusaders obtained little support in the country and after a stay of three days they left for Sweden.

In the middle of December the Minister of Finance made arrangements with the National Bank of New York for a 6 per cent. loan of 1,000,000*l.* redeemable in seven years. Negotiations were carried on with Great Britain during the latter part of the year with a view to reaching some agreement as regards the importation of commodities similar to that arranged with Holland, Denmark, and other countries. An arrangement was indeed arrived at with regard to cotton; but as regards the general question no positive results were reached, and at the end of the year the negotiations were for the time being interrupted.

CHAPTER V.

SOUTHERN ASIA.

I. CYPRUS.

THIS small British possession came into some prominence during the year owing to the discussion of the proposal to cede the island to the Hellenic kingdom. The majority (nearly four-fifths) of the inhabitants are Greeks, and repeatedly proclaimed their desire to be united with their independent brethren, but the question was complicated by the presence in the island of a considerable number of Turks who greatly preferred to remain under British rule. However, in October the British Government offered to cede the country to Greece, if that kingdom would consent to help Serbia in the new campaign then raging. The Greek King refused the proposal, thinking no doubt that the conditions imposed were too dangerous. The Greek inhabitants of the island numbered about 225,000, and the "Turks," or Moslems, about 60,000.

A plague of locusts ravaged the island in April.

On March 3 a proclamation was issued by the Governor announcing that all Ottoman subjects resident in Cyprus on November 5, 1914, would become British subjects, unless they gave notice within one month (before April 4) that they wished to remain Ottoman subjects, in which case they would have to leave Cyprus within two months of the date on which they gave in their notices to that effect.

II. PERSIA.

The position of Persia in relation to the great war was nominally one of neutrality, but in practice the country soon became involved to a considerable extent in the world-wide conflict. For some years Russia had been in control of the northern portion of the country, more particularly of the rich and important province of Azerbaijan; and so little was left of Persian sovereignty

in these northern provinces that the inhabitants no longer paid any taxes to the Teheran Government. This portion of Persia was, in fact, though of course not in law, almost a part of the Russian Empire, and as is described elsewhere (see Turkey) the Ottoman commanders soon treated it as such. The sympathies of the Moslem majority in Persia were mainly pro-Turkish, but the much-persecuted minority of Christians looked upon Russia as their future deliverer and protector.

Owing to the poverty of the Shah's Government it was expected early in the year that Persia would be obliged to dispense with the services of the Swedish officers of the gendarmerie, whose salaries were much in arrears, and one of the regiments of police was actually disbanded. The Swedish officers had done valuable work, but the commander, Colonel Hjalmarsen, and some of the other officers left Persia in the spring, partly because the Government could no longer find the funds to pay their stipends and partly because they were required by the military authorities in their own country. Persia was, however, able to retain the services of eleven of the Swedes.

Whilst the war spread to the western part of the Russian sphere in Persia, the eastern portion, to wit the province of Khorasan, remained undisturbed, and the Russian garrison in this district numbered only about 1,000 men. Meshed was quiet and prosperous, but the country roads were, as usual, infested with robbers.

The brief Turkish occupation of Tabriz at the beginning of the year is described elsewhere (see Turkey), but even after this ambitious move had failed, quite serious fighting took place between the Russians and the Turks in the neighbourhood of Lake Urmī. Thus in April a battle was fought near Khoi, in which the Turks, under Khalil Bey, were severely defeated, losing (according to the Russian account) over 3,000 men in killed alone. In this fighting the Persian Christians sided with the Muscovites, whilst the local Moslems took the part of the Turks, although throughout the disturbances the Persian Government remained neutral. In the spring the British Consul and the British Colony at Kermanshah were forced to flee to Hamadan owing to the incursions of Turks and Kurds. The steps taken by the Russians were not such as to ingratiate them with the Persians, other than the Christian minority. In the districts which they reconquered several Mohammedan villages were destroyed as a punitive measure, and in Azerbaijan they put authority into the hands of a certain Shuja-ed-Dowleh, who was notoriously hated by the people, and particularly by the Kurdish tribes within Persian jurisdiction. Further, they tried to induce the young Shah to appoint Saad-ed-Dowleh as his Prime Minister, and this proposal provoked a great outburst of anger at Teheran where the personage in question was detested. The Turks and Germans were not

slow to take advantage of the unpopularity of the Muscovites. Turkophil journalists and Turkish agents worked actively against the Russo-British supremacy in Persia, and many journals openly declared that the day of reckoning had come and that all true Persians ought to rush to arms and rid the country of the hateful infidel intruders.

The massacres that took place in Turkish Armenia are described elsewhere, but similar massacres, though on a much smaller scale, were perpetrated in the adjoining parts of Persia. The town of Urmia, in Azerbaijan, suffered from a terrible visitation from the Kurds. The Russian troops in their early retreat from Azerbaijan evacuated this town on January 2, and they did not return to it until May 24. The place was occupied by the Turks from January 4 until May 20. There were some 30,000 Christians in this district, and the majority of these owed their lives to one thing only—that even the fanatical Kurds respected the American flag. About 10,000 fled northwards and attempted to reach Russia, but no fewer than 17,000 crowded into the American Mission. Others were not so fortunate, and about 1,000 of the Christians were killed, scores of villages being plundered. Some of the local Moslems assisted the Turks and Kurds in the slaughter. In the village of Galpashan about fifty men were tied together and taken out to the graveyard and there killed in cold blood. Forty-six men were taken out of the French Mission and slaughtered in the same manner. About 4,000 persons died of disease. In the American Mission the overcrowding was extreme, and for weeks and months the refugees were compelled to sit and lie packed together as closely as possible, since none dared leave the sanctuary. Under these insanitary conditions, the spread of typhus and typhoid was inevitable, and nearly all the medical men and nurses suffered from those diseases. The Kurds, on being paid fees, reluctantly gave permission for the dead to be buried outside the premises of the Mission. The heroism displayed by the American missionaries during this time was beyond all praise.

During the summer, disturbances also occurred in the extreme south of Persia, particularly in and around Bushire, where two British officers, Major Oliphant and Captain Ranking, were killed in July. The town was thereupon occupied by a small Anglo-Indian force.

The desire of the Shah, who was constantly changing his Ministers, appears to have been to remain neutral, but the powerful Democratic party in the Mejliss were violently anti-Russian. They constantly protested against the occupation of parts of their country by Russian and British troops. On the other hand, they condemned the action of the Minister of the Interior, Prince Firmian Firma, in resisting the Turkish and Kurdish hordes who had crossed the western frontier.

Nevertheless, by October the Persian Government succeeded temporarily in exerting slightly more control over its turbulent subjects, and on October 16 the British withdrew from Bushire. At about the same time the Czar's Government sent a minatory note to Teheran. The Persian Ministry were warned that if it should transpire that there was any truth in the rumours then current that Persia had concluded an agreement with Turkey and Turkey's allies, the Anglo-Russian Convention, which was founded upon "the principle of the maintenance of the integrity and independence of Persia" would immediately lapse. This threat was not entirely lost on the Shah, although he might have replied that the Russian conception of Persian "integrity and independence," as exemplified in Azerbaijan, was somewhat peculiar. Indeed, the terms of the convention referred to had for some years been reduced to a farce. In justice to Russia, however, it should be remembered that the preservation of the integrity of a weak half-civilised country which adjoins a relatively civilised State is always a difficult task, and is rendered doubly difficult when the central Government in the country concerned is quite unable to make its authority respected by its own subjects.

At the beginning of November the agitation that had been carried on by the Germans and Turks for many months broke out afresh and became very serious. The German legation at Teheran commenced to arm a force of mercenary troops. The Russian reply to this was to order the Muscovite detachment at Kazvin to march upon the capital. The advent of the Russian troops caused the Germans, Austro-Hungarians and Turks to flee to Ispahan and Kum; before leaving they endeavoured to induce the Shah and the Government to go with them, in order definitely to identify the Persian authorities with the Turko-German cause, but the Government refused to fall in with this plan. The Russians advanced, but did not actually occupy the capital.

The situation became further complicated by the action of the Persian gendarmerie, which with its Swedish officers threw in its lot with the Turko-German agitators and native rebels. On November 10 the gendarmes arrested the British colony at Shiraz, sent the women safely to Bushire, and imprisoned the men. The discontent of the military police had been growing for months, owing to the fact already mentioned that their pay was months in arrears. A simultaneous revolt occurred at Hamadan, where, however, a small force of Persian Cossacks happened to be stationed, and these troops succeeded at first in driving off the gendarmes. These Persian Cossacks, it should be stated, were a small force of well-trained troops (numbering about 2,500 men), legally under the control of the Persian Government, but commanded by Russian officers. The headquarters of the force were at Teheran. The gendarmerie was, however, a stronger and larger force than the Cossack Brigade, and with the help of the

lawless rebels and bandits it obtained possession of Hamadan and Kum, as well as Shiraz, and controlled a large district in Central Persia. The Swedish Government disclaimed all responsibility for the actions of its nationals in Persia, and pointed out that the officers more immediately under the control of the Stockholm Ministry had been recalled to Sweden earlier in the year. The total strength of gendarmerie was 6,000 men, with 120 native officers, and (originally) thirty-six Swedish officers. It was reinforced at the time of the outbreak by 250 Austro-Hungarian soldiers who had been collected together, and it was supplied with machine guns and light cannon. In December the Russian commander moved with greater decision against this motley host of enemies. In addition to the Russian force sent from Kazvin to the immediate vicinity of Teheran, another small army marched southwards from Kazvin towards Hamadan, and met the enemy at the Sultan Bulah Pass. The hostile force here consisted of about half the gendarmerie (*i.e.*, 3,000 men) and some 8,000 to 10,000 Persian irregulars, led by German and Austro-Hungarian officers, and all well armed. The Russians drove back their foes, and a few days later (the middle of December) captured Hamadan. At the same time, a third Russian expedition was sent against Kum, which had been the headquarters of the German Minister to Persia, Prince Henry XXXI. of Reuss, since his hurried departure from Teheran. After a battle the town was taken, but not before the Germans had made good their escape. The Russians also captured Kashan, and at the end of the year were marching on Ispahan.

Thus the forces organised by the Germans, Austro-Hungarians, and Turks to oppose the influence of the two protecting Powers in Persia were largely disposed of by the Russians by the end of December. Throughout the warlike operations the Shah's Government remained neutral. The Persian Regular Army, which was supposed to consist of about 50,000 men with 100 guns, was not mobilised, and played no part in the drama whatsoever. The force of Persian Cossacks did indeed intervene against the revolting gendarmerie, as already stated, but since they were commanded by Russian officers they could scarcely be said to represent the Shah in anything but name. The Teheran Government found it politic to acquiesce in the demands of the two protecting Empires, but there is no doubt that the feelings of the people were strongly anti-Russian, and they certainly sympathised secretly with the extraordinary fraternity of German, Swedish, Austrian, Hungarian, and Turkish adventurers who, with many mixed motives, were sedulously endeavouring to rid the Shah's dominions of the Muscovite intruders.

III. AFGHANISTAN.

Afghanistan passed through the year peaceably and the relations of the country with the Indian Government were most cordial. Afghanistan presented in these respects a marked contrast to its neighbour, Persia. Both Persia and Afghanistan were nominally Sovereign States; but in practice the British Raj was the supreme protecting Power in Afghanistan, whereas in Persia, the paramount Power was Russia rather than Great Britain. The difference between the conditions prevailing in the two countries indicates the success of the British in gaining the confidence of a weak nation.

IV. TIBET AND NEPAL.

Both these countries sent offers of assistance to Great Britain in the war against Germany.

V. INDIA.

Although it was such a violently disturbed year for the British Empire as a whole, yet India, the largest unit in that Empire, was singularly little affected by the great crisis. The majority of the subjects of the Emperor-King continued to live their lives placidly, being for the most part too ignorant, too uneducated, and too remote to realise more than dimly the existence of the titanic war that could not fail to influence the history not alone of battle-scourged Europe, but of their own Asia and of all the world.

With Russia an ally of Great Britain, Afghanistan quiescent, and the Chinese absorbed in their internal affairs, the chief countries contiguous to Hindustan were either outside the immediate effects of the war or else had their attention drawn off by it into another direction. It was only through Persia that trouble came. It was inevitable that the Moslems of India should find their sympathies in a certain sense divided. Islam is a great binding force. Hitherto Mohammedan Indians had always been able to regard the British Raj as the friend, almost the ally, of the Khalif who ruled from Constantinople. Britain and Turkey and India all had the same potential enemy to fear: Russia. But now the Mohammedan minority in the Empire saw to their surprise that the British Raj had under the new conditions become allied to the traditional enemy of the Ottoman Empire; and was actually attempting to assist that enemy in the capture of Constantinople. And all that was enthusiastically independent and fanatically Mohammedan in Persia sympathised with Turkey, and indirectly with Turkey's allies. Thus through Persia a certain influence making for unrest penetrated to India, and hence arose the disturbances among some of the hill-tribes hereafter described. On the whole, however, even the Moslems of India remained remarkably indifferent to current events, and

it says much for the justice of British rule that this should have been so.

In a speech delivered at the re-opening of the Legislative Council at Delhi on January 13, the Viceroy, Lord Hardinge, dealt with this quiet contentment of the Indian peoples. The Viceroy said that it was a matter of great satisfaction to him to see the universal loyalty that was being displayed all over India, although this in no way surprised him. The magnificent behaviour of the Indian troops at the front was also most gratifying, and had been recognised by everybody who had seen them. Two Victoria Crosses had already been won by Indian soldiers. As long ago as September 8, he (the Viceroy) had been able to announce that India had sent 70,000 combatants across the sea to take part in the war. British and Indian soldiers had been fighting together in five theatres of war—France, East Africa, China, and the Persian Gulf. Now nearly 200,000 troops had been or were being sent abroad to fight. These were being relieved by fresh troops from Great Britain, but the Indian frontiers were still being guarded by old Indian troops, not by the new British troops. The speaker closed with a warm tribute to the gallantry of the Indian soldiers.

The Indian National Congress which met at the beginning of the year under the presidency of the Hon. Mr. Rhupendranath Basu confirmed what Lord Hardinge had said in September 1914 about the loyalty of the country by passing a resolution expressing its loyalty with enthusiasm. In the membership of the congress a very undue preponderance was given this year to Madras, over 600 of the 700 delegates hailing from that province. The president made the usual requests for various reforms in Indian politics. The most important of these proposed reforms was perhaps the scheme for more complete parliamentary control over the doings of the Indian Office in London, the House of Commons in its turn receiving deputations of Indian politicians. The congress apparently had great faith in the perspicacity of the House of Commons. Another reform demanded by these Indian progressives was the right of Indians to bear arms.

On January 25 the Viceroy left Bombay to pay a visit to the Persian Gulf, where the Anglo-Indian forces were in occupation of a portion of Turkish territory. He arrived at Koweit on January 31, and whilst staying there and in the neighbourhood he received visits from the Sheikhs of Koweit, Bahrein and Mohamrah, all of whom he invested with honours. Lord Hardinge then went on to Busreh, where he was received with considerable ceremony. The local British community presented the Viceroy with an address, which expressed the hope that the British occupation of the town and district would be permanent. To this Lord Hardinge replied in a non-committal manner, pointing out to the deputation that Great Britain was not waging the war alone, but

in alliance with other Great Powers, with whom it would be necessary to consult on the terms of the *post-bellum* settlement. The Viceroy arrived back at Delhi on February 15.

During March some controversy was aroused both in England and India by the action of the House of Lords in prohibiting on March 16 the institution of the proposed Executive Council for the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, this new scheme of government having been approved both by the Indian and by the British Government. The council was to be created under the powers conferred upon the Governor-General in Council by the Indian Councils Act of 1909, which provided that the Viceroy could in this manner create by proclamation an Executive Council in a Lieutenant-Governorship, on condition that the draft proclamation be laid before each House of Parliament for not less than sixty days during the session of Parliament, it being open to either House to condemn the proposal during that period. Lord MacDonnell moved that "an humble address be presented to His Majesty, praying him to withhold his consent during the continuance of the war from the draft proclamation," etc.; and after a long debate in which Lord Sydenham, Earl Curzon, and the Marquess of Crewe took part the motion was carried by 47 votes to 26. Lord MacDonnell said that this was a highly controversial proposal, and that the Viceroy had himself stated, when speaking to the Indian Legislative Council on December 12, 1914, that it was inadvisable "to undertake any legislation which might provoke anything approaching controversy and friction" during the continuance of the war. Lord MacDonnell also argued against the new proposal on its own merits, and he was supported in his opposition by Lords Sydenham and Curzon. The Marquess of Crewe, speaking for the Government, said that he had never heard it suggested that the political truce, while it applied to legislative proposals of all kinds, applied also to Executive acts. Such a suggestion would, he contended, reduce all executive government almost to a nullity. The Marquess said that if the intention were merely to postpone for a short time the creation of the Council, he would regret it, but would not regard the matter as very serious, but if on the other hand the object were to destroy the proclamation, he would be compelled to divide the House on the motion. Lord MacDonnell, speaking again, said that the motion would indeed destroy the proclamation for the time being, but that it was open to the Government to revive the whole project after the war. The House divided, with the result above mentioned.

Speaking in the Legislative Council at Delhi on March 25 Lord Hardinge referred to this incident in the House of Lords. He said that he greatly regretted to hear that an address to the monarch against the proclamation had been carried in the House of Lords. The House of Commons had not interfered in the matter. It appeared to him unfortunate that a small body of

Peers, who perhaps failed to realise the progress of India, could destroy a proposal recommended by the Indian Government and by the Imperial Government, and supported by public opinion in India. The law which permitted such action ought certainly to be modified, and he hoped that the Imperial Government would recognise this. He trusted that educated people in India would not be impressed by the occurrence, which he believed constituted only a temporary set-back to the scheme to establish the Executive Council in the United Provinces.

In the same speech Lord Hardinge referred to his recent visit to the Persian Gulf, and he spoke enthusiastically of the climate and potentialities of the country around the Shatt-el-Arab. The district was, he said, eminently suitable for Indian immigrants, and under good government should become very prosperous.

India like most other countries suffered during the year from a rise in the price of corn. This was not due to any failure of the previous harvest in India, but to the general rise throughout the world, owing to the closing of the Dardanelles and the drought in Australia. In consequence of this the Government decided to take steps to regulate prices. The usual method of doing this is to forbid export as soon as the price rises above a certain figure, but this was not the plan adopted on this occasion. In the spring the Government announced that the export of wheat would temporarily become a State monopoly, and a "wheat commissioner" was appointed, whose duty it was to arrange for the purchase of wheat at prices fixed by the Executive, the prices being such as to allow the agriculturalists a fair profit. The difference between this Indian price and the price obtained for the corn abroad became, after allowing for the necessary charges, a part of the Indian revenue. It was not, however, with the object of obtaining revenue that the Government took this step; the aim was to fix the home prices in the interest of the Indian people by limiting the amount of export.

During the summer there was a prolonged and important trial at Lahore of sixty-one political criminals, who were charged with conspiring to overthrow British rule in India. The prisoners were stated to have had nineteen other associates, who had not been arrested. The leader of the band of revolutionaries was a man named Bhai Paramand, who was the author of a "History of India" that had been suppressed by the Government. The plot was concocted in San Francisco after the war broke out, all the conspirators being Indian emigrants to the United States. They returned to India in small parties, and in January and February they committed a series of audacious robberies with a view to obtaining funds. Important evidence was given for the prosecution by several natives, who had been mixed up with the plots, and then turned informers. They described how the schemes originated in America, and said that the aim was to seduce Indian soldiers

from their allegiance, and to murder Europeans. There was to have been a big concerted rising on February 21, but on February 18 the police raided a house in Lahore, arrested some of the principal plotters, and seized bombs, pistols, and seditious literature. The conspirators had little success in seducing the Indian troops. It is interesting to note that whilst the plot was being hatched in America the revolutionaries were much under the influence of a certain Indian extremist, by name Hardy, who had held a scholarship at Oxford University, and had since been domiciled in the United States, where he had been carrying on an agitation against British rule in India (see A.R., 1914, p. 408). The trial lasted over three months, and in the result the special tribunal sentenced twenty-four prisoners to death,¹ twenty-seven to transportation for life, and others to shorter terms of imprisonment, only four being acquitted. It was clear that the conspirators took their own plot seriously, but their arrangements for a rising were ridiculously inadequate, and would not have had the least prospect of success.

There were numerous other trials for robbery, especially in Bengal and Punjab, throughout the year, but in most of these other cases there was little or no political motive behind the crimes.

The raids by hillmen on the north-west frontier were this year somewhat more serious than usual, perhaps because agitators from Persia were stirring up the fierce tribesmen. At the end of August, 12,000 Bunerwals made a raid into the Peshawar district, but were driven out in a few days with heavy loss. A few days later, in September, about 10,000 Mohmands made a raid, but they were engaged by General Campbell near Hafiz Kor and severely defeated, the British having only about one hundred casualties. Other smaller raids also occurred.

In August the Government decided to deport or intern all the German missionaries in India. It was discovered that some of these men had been abusing their position by attempting to sow sedition among the natives, and hence the Government had no alternative but to suppress German missionary propaganda entirely.

Lord Hardinge's normal term of office as Governor-General would have expired in November, but in June the British Government announced that the Viceroy had been requested to remain in India until the end of March 1916.

An important motion was carried in the Indian Legislative Council on September 22. An unofficial Indian member moved a resolution asking that India should be officially represented at the next Imperial Conference. The Viceroy accepted the motion, and in his speech said that he himself thoroughly approved of the suggestion, and knew that the motion would receive the careful

¹ The Viceroy subsequently commuted most of the death sentences.

consideration of the British Government. The size, population, and wealth of India entitled her, he said, to representation at the Conference. The resolution was carried unanimously.

The Budget for the year 1915-16 showed an estimated deficit of nearly 3,000,000*l.* sterling. The estimated expenditure was 83,117,200*l.* and the estimated revenue 80,346,900*l.* In the summer the Government appealed for a war loan of 3,000,000*l.*, and this was over-subscribed to the extent of about 1,500,000*l.* sterling.

The Indian National Congress met again at the very end of December and renewed its declaration of loyalty.

VI. ADEN.

Many of the outlying parts of the British Empire were directly involved in the great war, and Aden was one of these. It was insufficiently garrisoned, with the result that the Turks were able to deliver an unpleasant blow to British prestige in that part of the Arabian peninsula. At the beginning of July it was reported to the military authorities at Aden that a body of Turks with Arab auxiliaries was approaching the ill-defined frontier between the Aden hinterland and Yemen. This hinterland was peopled by a number of semi-independent tribes, under British protection, one of the most important of the chiefs being the Sultan of Lahej. On July 4 the Turkish army, which was several thousands strong and had twenty guns, attacked Lahej and took the town by storm. The British force available for the defence of Lahej was altogether inadequate, and consisted of only a camel troop and 250 men of the Aden Movable Column, with two small guns. The little British force fought with great courage, and defended the place all day, but after nightfall it was compelled to evacuate the town, and it did not stay its retreat until it had reached Aden town. The loyal Sultan was killed in the fighting. The Turks were not in sufficient strength to threaten Aden itself.

VII. CEYLON.

Ceylon had up to the year under consideration been very free from the type of political unrest which had long prevailed over a large part of India, but in June serious riots occurred, which were at least partly political in character. The riots broke out in Kandy, but spread to Colombo and other towns, and martial law had to be proclaimed in five provinces of the island. The rioting, which was almost exclusively confined to the Singalese—the Tamil coolies and Indian residents taking no part in the outbreak—was partly religious in its origin; the disturbances commenced on Budha's birthday and the rioters attacked and looted the shops of the Indian Moslems. The fact that the riots broke out simultaneously in more than one place and that the natives

attempted to interrupt railway communications pointed, however, to a definite plan for a concerted rising. The districts affected were kept under martial law for three months, and many of the Mohammedan shopkeepers returned in disgust to India.

CHAPTER VI.

THE FAR EAST: CHINA—JAPAN—THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

I. CHINA.

DURING the earlier part of the year important negotiations took place between China and Japan. On December 3, 1914, Baron Kato, the Japanese Foreign Minister, had instructed Dr. Hioki, the Japanese Ambassador at Peking, to make certain demands upon China, and it soon transpired that the concessions required by Japan were of an extensive character. Japan demanded, in the first place, that China should undertake not to cede or lease to any foreign nation any part of the Chinese coast or island off that coast; and in addition she asked for certain special concessions. Japan's claim to these privileges arose out of the fact that she had, through her two successful wars, succeeded to the rights of Russia in Southern Manchuria and to those of Germany in Shantung.

The rights demanded were as follows:—

In Southern Manchuria.—The lease of the Port Arthur territory and the agreements concerning the Antung-Mukden and Kirin-Changchun railways to be extended to ninety-nine years.

In Shantung.—Japan to take over all the mining and railway rights previously possessed by Germany, and certain additional railway privileges.

In Eastern Mongolia.—All the mining rights in this region to belong to Japan, and no railways to be built without Japan's permission. Japanese to be allowed to settle and acquire land.

Other privileges of a less important character were demanded in the Yangtze Valley and in Fuhkien.

Japan further requested that half the arms and ammunition in future required by China should be purchased in Japan, or, failing this, that an arsenal should be established in China under the supervision of Japanese experts and utilising Japanese raw materials.

These demands were somewhat severely criticised by Europeans and Americans in the Far East, as it was held that some of them conflicted with the established principles of the "open door" and "equal opportunity" for all nations in China; principles to which Japan was expected to adhere. Japan, however, continued to force her requests upon her large but help-

less neighbour, and after prolonged negotiations, the Japanese Government presented an ultimatum to China on May 7. The immediate cause of the ultimatum was a series of counter-demands by China, which Japan refused to grant. China asked for a definite pledge that Kiao-Chau should be restored to her, that Japan should pay an indemnity for the damage caused in the violation of Chinese neutrality during the operations against the German colony, and also that Japan should give a pledge that China should be represented at the peace conference. Japan then sent the ultimatum, which was to expire on May 9. The Japanese claim relative to the purchase of arms by China and certain other proposals were omitted at the last, but the remaining demands above specified were included within the scope of the ultimatum. The Chinese Government, in view of the military weakness of their country, decided to accede to the Japanese ultimatum.

The terms of the agreement thus reached were as follows:—

(1) *In Shantung.*—China agrees beforehand to whatever arrangements Japan and Germany may make as to the disposal of the latter country's rights in this province. Also no part of the coast or islands off the coast to be ceded or leased to any foreign Power.

(2) *In Southern Manchuria.*—Lease of the Port Arthur territory and of the South Manchurian and Antung-Mukden railways to be extended to ninety-nine years from the dates of the original agreements. Right of travel and of purchasing land to be granted to Japanese in the district, subject to certain judicial regulations. In the event of China desiring to engage foreign advisers in financial, military, or police matters in the district, Japan to be first consulted on the question. Also, if China should require capital for the construction of new railways, Japanese capitalists to have preference.

(3) *In Eastern Inner Mongolia.*—Greater commercial opportunities for Japan, and in the event of China requiring capital for railway construction, Japan to be first consulted on the matter.

(4) *In Fuhkien.*—No Power to be permitted by China to establish shipyards, coaling, or naval stations of any sort on the coast of the province.

(5) *The Han-yeh-Ping Company.*¹—China undertakes not to confiscate this company or to buy it up on behalf of the State without permission of the Japanese capitalists concerned. Other advantages for Japan.

(6) *The Chinese coasts and islands.*—Japan withdraws her demands restricting China's right to lease portions of the Chinese coasts or islands near by (except as agreed above), China at the same time stating that she has no present intention of taking such a step.

¹ This company was an enterprise of a mixed Chinese-Japanese character.

(7) *Kiau-Chau*.—If, after peace is made with Germany, Japan be given a free hand in regard to *Kiau-Chau*, she will be willing to restore it to China on certain conditions. Of these conditions two may be mentioned as being important. (a) An alternative concession to be granted to Japan in a locality selected by her, and (b) *Kiau-Chau Bay* to be an open commercial port.

The treaty, which was signed on May 23, and of which the above is only a summary, was a lengthy document and contained numerous minor concessions to Japan in addition to the important agreements here mentioned. It will be seen that the demands originally made by Japan were slightly modified, and that the claim in regard to China's purchases of arms was (as already stated) withdrawn altogether. On the other hand, none of the Chinese counter-claims were granted, the concession in regard to the restoration of *Kiau-Chau* being of dubious value. The result of the negotiations was to strengthen further Japan's already strong and privileged position in Southern Manchuria, and to give her a new foothold in Eastern Mongolia, and various anomalous rights in China proper.

In June the President, Yuan Shih Kai, issued a manifesto dealing with the negotiations with Japan. He said that China had undoubtedly suffered by the concessions in Manchuria and Mongolia, and he expressed his sorrow and shame for the humiliation which the country had been forced to bear. But he pointed out that no alternative course was possible in view of the political weakness of the Chinese people. In various places disaffected persons had tried to raise riots on the pretext that a demonstration ought to be made against the concessions to Japan, but the provincial authorities must suppress all seditious movements of this kind. If the people would work together for reform, China would become a strong nation.

In the latter half of the year a movement was set on foot, probably with the cognizance of the Government, to change the Chinese Constitution and to re-establish a monarchy, with Yuan Shih Kai as Emperor. The agitation first became noticeable in August. The President at first professed himself hostile to any such change, and he made this clear in a manifesto issued on September 6. Nevertheless the wording of the message left it open to be supposed that the change might be inaugurated if "the majority of the people of the country" desired it. Of course the fact was that "the majority of the people" took no interest in the matter one way or the other. The masses of the Chinese population were not yet politically conscious; the country had not become anything approaching a democratic republic in the sense understood in North America and Europe. The Chinese Republic was in practice an oligarchy, resembling somewhat the ancient republics of Greece and Italy. Power was in the hands of the few, though be it said that those few had accomplished much good.

Petitions in favour of a new monarchy were got up in various parts of the country and were sent in to Peking. The leaders of the Army were in favour of the change, and on September 22 delegates representing the military commanders of the Peking district waited on the President and asked him to re-establish the monarchy, but Yuan still refused. Matters moved rapidly, however. The State Council (a nominated assembly acting the part of a Parliament) took up the question, and passed a Bill authorising the convocation of a special body of 2,000 representatives of all the provinces of China, these representatives having to vote for or against the abolition of the Republican Constitution.

At the end of October the Japanese Government, supported by the Russian and British Governments, intervened in the question, and informed the Chinese Foreign Minister that having regard to the great war in Europe they deemed it unwise to alter the form of the Chinese Constitution at this time, more particularly as it appeared to them that the proposal was arousing more opposition in some of the Chinese provinces than might have been expected. The Japanese Government therefore advised the Chinese Government not to proceed with the change. The Japanese Government also asked the United States Ministry what their opinion on the proposed change was, but Mr. Lansing, the American Secretary of State, refused to give his views on the matter, on the ground that to do so might be construed "as an interference in the internal affairs of a sovereign state." The Chinese Government replied to the Japanese Government saying that the question was a domestic concern of China, but that as the Japanese advice had been tendered in a friendly manner the Chinese Government would inform the Ambassador that the Government itself had always opposed the change, but that the movement had rapidly grown, and fifteen provinces had then already (Nov. 4) voted in favour of a monarchy. France and Italy also associated themselves with the Japanese, Russian, and British requests that the change should be postponed till the end of the war.

The balloting throughout the provinces was overwhelmingly in favour of a new monarchy—it was even stated that the votes were unanimous—and on December 11 the State Council formally asked Yuan Shih Kai to assume the throne of China, and the President then consented, although he said that he could not go through the actual formalities of the change until the next year. It is of interest to note that the representatives of the provinces voted by telegraph.

II. JAPAN.

The attention of all the European Powers being concentrated upon the affairs of their own continent, Japan was able to pursue unmolested her policy of expansion in Eastern Asia.

Before the end of 1914 the German colony of Kiau-Chau was successfully captured, and the port was re-opened for trade on December 28 of that year. Japan showed no sign of any intention to return this territory to China. On the contrary, so far from compensating China in any way for having marched through Chinese territory in order to attack the Kiau-Chau forts in the rear, Japan made new and important demands upon China for further concessions, as fully described elsewhere (see China). On the other hand, the German islands in the Pacific which had been seized by the Japanese fleet, were handed over to the Australian authorities.

Japan remained at war with Germany throughout the year, but took no active steps to co-operate in the military operations. Nor was this to be expected. By the terms of the Anglo-Japanese alliance, Japan was only to assist in a war in Eastern Asia, and Japan's legal part in the struggle was therefore fulfilled when Kiau-Chau had fallen, and the German colonies in the Pacific had been annexed. Yet Japan gave a considerable amount of indirect assistance to her Western allies, and particularly to Russia. Large quantities of ammunition were manufactured in the country, particularly during the second half of the year, and were transported to the Polish front *via* Vladivostok and the Trans-Siberian Railway. The relations between Russia and Japan, which had so recently been enemies, were now of the most cordial description. Japan's position in the great aggregation of nine Sovereign States which were warring against the two Central European Powers was analogous to that of Portugal; that is, it was a position of very limited liability.

The imperial diet was dissolved in December, 1914, owing to the Government having been defeated on the Army estimates, and a general election was fixed for March 25. Throughout March there was a vigorous election campaign. The Government party stood for a policy of strengthening the Army and for advanced imperialism generally. The Opposition, and more particularly the powerful Seizukai party, favoured a more moderate and more progressive programme. Count Okuma, the Premier, travelled all over the country making speeches, and even sent gramophone records of his orations to places that he could not visit personally. The result of the elections was a great triumph for the Government. The Seizukai party lost over seventy seats, and the Ministerialists—who were in a minority before the dissolution—came in with a clear majority of over 40 over all the Opposition parties combined. A feature of the contests was the success of that section of the Ministerialists, the Doshikai party, of which the Foreign Secretary, Baron Kato, was regarded as the special leader. This Doshikai party had been founded by the famous statesman Prince Katsura, who had since died. It will be seen that the result of the elections must be regarded in the

light of a victory for a policy of vigorous imperialism. The diet opened on May 20, and the session lasted for three weeks. The Opposition criticised the Government for their management of the negotiations with China, saying that the Japanese ought not to have yielded to so many of the Chinese objections.

At the end of July there was a serious Cabinet crisis. The Opposition brought forward charges of bribery in the elections, and unfortunately for the Ministry these charges were proved against the Home Minister, Viscount Oura. The Prime Minister therefore resigned on July 30. The following day the Emperor consulted on the situation with the Genro, and in particular asked the advice of Prince Yamagata, Prince Oyama, Marquis Matsukata, and Marquis Inouye. The general opinion among these statesmen was that it would be desirable for Count Okuma to remain Prime Minister. After several days' consideration the Count consented to this proposal, but he made several important changes in his Cabinet, the new constitution of which was announced on August 10. Count Okuma himself became temporarily the Minister for Foreign Affairs, which post was, however, offered to Baron Ishii, the Ambassador in Paris. Baron Kato, the previous Foreign Minister, retired from the Cabinet altogether. Mr. Tokitoshi Taketomi became Minister of Finance, and Dr. Kitokuro Ichiki, previously in charge of the Education Department, became Minister of the Interior. Vice-Admiral Tomosabura Kato took charge of the Admiralty. In a speech on August 15 the Premier referred to the Cabinet crisis, and declared that the policy of the Government remained unchanged, and that the unfinished political programme would be carried out. He also took the opportunity of stating that Japan sought no territorial aggrandisement in China, and adhered to the principle of the "open door." The next day Baron Kato, the ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs, addressed a meeting of the Doshikai party, of which as already mentioned he was leader, and urged his hearers to continue to support the Government, although he had resigned. The meeting passed unanimously a resolution supporting the new Ministry.

Bribery at the general election was no doubt scandalously prevalent, and no fewer than twenty members of the Lower House were committed for public trial on this charge.

The question of the participation of Japanese troops in the war in Europe was debated from time to time in France and England, though there is no reason to suppose that the idea was ever favoured in responsible quarters. Speaking in October, Baron Kato condemned the plan as quite impracticable. Japanese intervention could not be effective, he said, unless a large number of troops were sent, and Japan had not the transports necessary for this. Even if the Allied Powers would and could lend ships for the purpose, the still more difficult question of

finance would have to be considered. The cost would be enormous, and quite beyond Japan's powers. The only practicable method for Japan to assist her allies was to send them munitions of war, and this she was prepared to do to the best of her ability. The speaker said there was no doubt that Germany would be defeated ultimately, but the British, who had long enjoyed the comforts of peace, appeared somewhat slow in bringing their full forces to bear upon the struggle. Nobody in Japan need fear that Germany would emerge victorious and then revenge herself upon the Japanese.

In November the ceremonial enthronement¹ of the Emperor took place, the ceremonies lasting for several days and being of a most elaborate character. On November 6 the Emperor left Tokyo in state (unaccompanied by the Empress who was prevented by ill-health) for Kyoto, where the chief ceremony was to take place. A crowd of over 500,000 persons gathered to see the monarch leave his capital. The procession reached Kyoto on the afternoon of November 7. At Kyoto various strange superstitious rites were performed, the Emperor making a formal speech to the spirits of his ancestors, and sacred rice being offered up by the virgins for the benefit of those souls. November 10 was the day of the main ceremony, the private rites being performed early in the morning, whilst in the afternoon there was a more public function at which the foreign representatives were present. The festivities were continued for several days, and before returning to Tokyo the Emperor paid a formal visit to the tomb of Jimmu Tenno, the first Emperor of Japan. Witnesses of the various ceremonies described them as magnificent in the extreme, and very well managed.

On October 19 Japan formally joined the Pact of London of September 5, 1914, by which the Entente Powers bound themselves not to conclude a separate peace during the present war. It will be remembered that Italy subsequently agreed to the same engagement.

Baron Ishii, the new Foreign Minister, made an important speech in the Imperial Diet on December 7. He explained that the Japanese Government had advised the Chinese Government not to re-establish the monarchy, lest there should be serious disturbances in some of the Chinese provinces, which would be detrimental to the general peace of Eastern Asia. He then explained that the recent adhesion of Japan to the Pact of London had scarcely been necessary in view of the terms of the alliance with Great Britain, which provided that peace should be made jointly by the two Powers. Nevertheless, the fact that Japan and Italy had joined the pact made, he said, the unity of all the Entente Powers more definite and also more apparent to all the world.

¹ Often erroneously called the "coronation." The Mikado is not crowned.

The estimated revenue and expenditure of Japan for the financial year 1916-17 balanced at 553,500,000 yen, which is over 34,000,000 yen below the figure for the 1915-16 Budget.

III. THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

In February Singapore was the scene of a serious riot caused by the mutiny of a large part of the Indian regiment stationed there, the 5th Light Infantry. The total number of mutineers was 818, and the revolt commenced on February 15, the situation being very grave until the arrival of a French warship on February 17. The rebels took action suddenly at about 3 P.M. on the 15th, and seized the regimental store of ammunition; a contingent of the Malay States Volunteer Rifles was immediately called out, but was unable to prevent the insurgents committing a long series of murders. The commander of the rebellious regiment, Lieutenant-Colonel Martin, was besieged in his own house, along with some of the Malay States Volunteers, and the gates of the Prisoners of War Camp were thrown open. This camp contained 309 prisoners; a few of these took the opportunity to escape, but others, after the departure of the Indians, went out and tended the British wounded. Martial law was proclaimed at 6.30 P.M., and all the white residents were ordered to collect in the centre of the town. The next morning, February 16, Lieutenant-Colonel C. W. Brownlow advanced with a force of 176 men, some of them only armed civilians, and succeeded in relieving the other small force that was still besieged in Colonel Martin's house. On the same day a force of special constables, consisting of both Europeans and Japanese, was raised, and on the 17th the French cruiser *Montcalm* arrived and landed a party of 190 men with two machine guns. From that moment the situation was under control and subsequently Russian and Japanese cruisers also arrived. Many of the mutineers escaped into the jungle, however, and over sixty of these were still at large at the beginning of March. Dyak "headhunters" were used for trailing down these scattered remnants of the murdering band. There were nearly seventy casualties among the whites, including many civilians. The cause of the unrest in the regiment was stated to be the Indians' dislike of being sent to Hong-Kong to do garrison duty. They were under orders for that colony at the time, whereas they desired to be sent to the front. There was also said to be some jealousy connected with recent promotions, and it was even rumoured that there had been a plot organised at the instigation of some of the German prisoners. The natives remained quiet throughout the disturbances.

In June a Bill was introduced in the Singapore Legislature to establish compulsory military service for British subjects of European descent between the ages of eighteen and fifty-five. The Bill was passed.

CHAPTER VII.

AFRICA (WITH MALTA).

I. THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA AND THE COLONY OF GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA.

THE year was an extremely eventful one in South Africa. At the close of 1914 the rebellion of the recalcitrant Boers under Generals Beyers and De Wet had been completely crushed, but the revolt, which had been of a very serious character, left the country in a disturbed condition, and delayed the projected invasion of the neighbouring German colony. Nearly 10,000 Boers had been in the field against the Botha Government, and the rebels had the surreptitious sympathy of a large part of the Dutch-speaking population, especially in the Orange Free State. The English reader will realise the extent of the insurrection, if he imagines what his own feelings would be if a rebel army 400,000 strong were encamped in Yorkshire and millions of people in the north of England desired to help that army to overthrow the London Government.

The Prime Minister, General Botha, had not improved his position among the Dutch by the active support that he had decided to give to Great Britain in the war. General Hertzog, the leader of the Boer extremists who had broken away from the Botha party since the general election of 1910, had significantly refrained from condemning the rebels, although he had lent the revolt no active support: and even some of the Dutch politicians who were reckoned supporters of General Botha rather than General Hertzog viewed the aggressive action against German South-West Africa with dislike. Twelve members of the Union House of Assembly had voted against the original war resolution in 1914, and three actually joined in the insurrection. The viewpoint of these Boers, whether avowed Hertzogites or dissentient Ministerialists, seems to have been that it was possible and legitimate for the South African Union to remain neutral, if it so desired, when Great Britain was at war—an attitude which found a faint echo among the extreme French Nationalists in Canada.

On the other hand, if General Botha and his very able colleague General Smuts (Minister of Defence) had lost popularity among the Dutch, they had enormously enhanced their reputation among British South Africans and in Imperialist circles throughout the empire. Botha and Smuts had come to be the very personification of the conception of a great Afrikaner State, which should remain an active partner in the Britannic league of nations.

At the beginning of the year there were some 4,000 rebels in prison. With the bulk of these men the Government decided to

deal in a lenient manner (see A.R., 1914, p. 425). General Botha drew a sharp distinction between the leaders of the revolt and the rank and file of the rebels, regarding the latter as ignorant and misguided men, who failed to realise the gravity of their crime. The leaders were condemned to long terms of imprisonment, and a certain J. Fourie, an embittered Anglophobe, was condemned to death and shot at Pretoria at the end of December, 1914. The rank and file, on the other hand, were fined or were condemned to short terms of imprisonment, or were deprived of certain civil rights. The Government came in for a good deal of criticism on the part of British South Africans for the mild manner in which they treated most of the insurgents, but General Botha declared that his object was to enable the country to forget the unhappy occurrences as soon as possible.

The Union Parliament met at the end of February, and General Hertzog took it upon himself not exactly to apologise for the rebellion but to explain it. The movement, he said, was not in any real sense a rebellion at all, but was merely "an armed protest" against the Government's proposal to invade German South-West Africa.

That many Boers had a genuine dislike of being dragged at Britain's chariot wheels into war with Germany is undoubtedly true. The Backveld Boers with long memories continued to regard Germany as an old and sympathetic friend. But in addition to the demand to be permitted to remain neutral when the British Empire was at war, the records of the rebellion proved that there existed a widespread plot to establish an independent republic in South Africa, the seditious movement being fanned, at least to some extent, by pro-German propagandists.

General Smuts, speaking in Parliament, stated that in his belief the revolt was due primarily to a desire to recover the independence lost in 1902, and that opposition to the attack on the German colony was largely a mere pretext. He also attributed the rising in part to the bitter personal hatred of General Botha which existed among the Backveld Boers, who accused the Prime Minister of traitorously Anglophil sentiments.

An Act was passed by the Union Parliament to indemnify loyalists who had suffered losses in the disturbances and military operations. In the Orange Free State, however, this Act was supplemented by a spontaneous movement among the inhabitants of the province. *Helpmakaar Vereenigingen* (Leagues of Help) were founded in many localities; their object being to provide financial assistance to all who had suffered in the rebellion, such charitable aid being given not only to loyalists but also to rebels. In the Free State, as already mentioned, sympathy with the rebels was especially pronounced.

The financial difficulties of the country occupied much of the attention of Parliament during the spring session. The war

expenditure was charged entirely to loan, but even so there was a deficit on the year 1914-15 of over 2,000,000*l.* sterling. This was due mainly to the closing of the diamond mines in August, 1914, and to the decrease in customs receipts owing to the adverse effects of the war upon commerce. This deficit was met by loan, but additional taxation was imposed for the year 1915-16, this taking the form of a much heavier income-tax, increased customs and excise charges, and further taxation of gold mining, which unlike diamond mining had continued uninterruptedly during the war. The exemption limit for income tax was lowered from 1,000*l.* to 300*l.*, and the rate charged was graduated from 1*s.* to 2*s.*, the maximum being reached on incomes of 24,000*l.* a year. The war expenditure to the end of March amounted to nearly 9,000,000*l.* sterling, a large sum for a small nation, but nevertheless a light burden compared to that which was contemporaneously being placed upon the backs of the British people.

The official Opposition (*i.e.*, the Unionist or British party) supported the Government's Budget proposals, but the scheme was opposed by the Labour party, who desired the taxation of land values and separate treatment of earned and unearned incomes.

The military operations against German South-West Africa which were carried out during the first six months of the year were not a war but a drive. This country, like all the German colonies, was quite unprepared for serious defence. Germany, which was so thoroughly equipped for a great land-war in Europe, was caught utterly unprepared for a war against the British Empire. With a hopelessly inferior Navy and all the colonies occupied by quite inadequate garrisons, the German Government had no means of bringing pressure upon any part of the British Empire, save in an indirect manner through the defeat of Great Britain's allies on the Continent of Europe; nor was it possible for the central Administration at Berlin to make any efforts for the protection of its not inconsiderable oversea possessions. This was remarkable in the case of all the colonies, but especially surprising in the case of Kiau-Chau, which although an object of great pride in Germany as a "model colony" was nevertheless left at the mercy of Japan; and in that of German South-West Africa, which by reason of its geographical position could have been made a base for a very serious blow at the integrity of the British Empire. With a large minority of the white population of South Africa hostile to Great Britain and disposed to welcome an alliance with Germany, the British domination of the sub-continent might have been placed in the utmost jeopardy. Had one hundredth, or even one two-hundredth part of the German Army been stationed in South-West Africa and been well supplied with ammunition, the Boer rising would probably have been successful. Yet apart from certain secret propagandist activity among the rustic Dutch, no preparations had

been made by the Germans to exploit the strategic possibilities of the situation to their advantage. No offensive on their part was feasible, and no serious precautions against the contingency of an Anglo-Boer invasion had been taken. South-West Africa possessed only a minute garrison, a body scarcely capable of doing more than serve the purpose of a military police force for the colony.

The sweeping operations began in January and lasted about six months. It will be remembered that the port of Luderitzbucht had been occupied before the end of 1914; the other important port, Swakopmund, was seized by the South Africans on January 14, with the loss of only two killed. General Botha's plan of campaign was to advance upon the German capital from several different directions simultaneously, from the coast, from the south, and from the east, the various columns converging towards the heart of the German colony. On January 12 Colonel Bouwer, operating from Steinkopf, forty miles south of the frontier, forced a crossing of the Orange River at Raman's Drift, and began an advance on Sandfontein, a settlement some fifteen miles within hostile territory. The Germans and Boer rebels made a counter-move to this invasion. On January 24 a body of about 1,200 men, under the command of the rebels Maritz and Kemp, made an attack upon Upington, which they bombarded with four guns, but they were driven off with the loss of eighteen killed, including a well-known Boer extremist named Stadler. This appears to have disheartened Kemp, for on February 3 he and about 600 of his followers came into Upington and surrendered. Amongst those who thus gave themselves up to the authorities was the "prophet" Van Rensburg, the extraordinary character who had a reputation as a seer among the superstitious rustic Boers, and whose visions had influenced many of the farmers to rebel. Meanwhile, the force operating from Luderitzbucht was advancing over very difficult country and succeeded in reaching the plain of Chaukaib in the middle of January. This place is situated only forty-five miles inland, but it is separated from the coast by a desert, and the Afrikanders took three months to traverse the distance. Chaukaib is rather less than half-way from Luderitzbucht to Aus, which was the immediate objective of this contingent. The country between Chaukaib and Aus is also very arid. Nevertheless, General Mackenzie, who was in command of this force, pushed on rather more rapidly, and on February 22 took Garub, seventy miles inland, which was chiefly valuable for its excellent water-supply. There was very little fighting during this advance, but progress beyond Garub was again slow and Aus itself was not captured until April 1. Beyond Aus the country is much less arid, and hence from that point onwards General Mackenzie's advance was less difficult. A large army disembarked at Swakopmund during February and March, and the total of the Union

forces in the field reached between 40,000 and 50,000. The German Army, including Regulars, the local levy, and military police numbered under 5,000, so that the odds in favour of the Anglo-Boer forces were just about ten to one. General Botha himself took supreme command of the forces in February. On February 8 he visited and inspected Sir Duncan Mackenzie's force operating from Luderitz Bay, and from there he went on to take command of the northern force at Swakopmund. The Southern force advanced but slowly and did not reach Warmbad until April 3; this town is situated only twenty-five miles north of the Orange River. On March 20 General Botha's force fought an engagement at Pforteberg, and captured 200 Germans and two field guns. This was one of the most important actions in the little war.

Considerable controversy was aroused by the fact that during the earlier part of the campaign the Germans in their retirement poisoned the wells that they left behind them. This occurred at Swakopmund, Aus, and Warmbad, but it should be said that in some cases at least warning notices were left to the effect that the water was "not drinking water". When this had been discovered at Swakopmund, General Botha sent Colonel Franke, the German commander, a stern warning that if this practice were continued he would hold the officers concerned personally responsible. General Botha referred to the fact that poisoning wells was contrary to the laws of civilised warfare, as decreed in Article No. 23 (a) of the Hague Convention. Colonel Franke did not admit that he was in the wrong, but stated that orders had been given to mark all the poisoned wells with warning notices. General Botha replied that the practice was illegal, even though the wells were so marked, but as a matter of fact the warnings had not been found at Swakopmund. In other cases the warning notices were found, and in the later stages of the campaign the Germans abandoned the practice altogether.

During April Colonel Van der Venter, in command of the southern force, advanced more rapidly, and on April 20 he occupied the important town of Keetmanshoop. This place is situated 130 miles from Warmbad, and was the chief town in the southern part of the colony. It is situated about 100 miles east of Aus, but meanwhile Sir Duncan Mackenzie had been advancing from the latter town, and he effected a junction with Colonel Van der Venter at the end of April.

In the southern area there was a third force of invaders commanded by Colonel Berrange. This contingent advanced from Rietfontein on the north-western frontier of Cape Colony, and after a difficult march linked up with the two other contingents near Keetmanshoop. Sir Duncan Mackenzie made an unsuccessful attempt to surround the Germans at Gibeon on April 28. After the capture of Keetmanshoop, the little German Army, which consisted of only 800 to 1,000 men, retreated northwards

along the railway which leads *via* Rehoboth to Windhuk. Gibeon is situated on this line, about 120 miles north of Keetmanshoop and a rather greater distance south of Rehoboth. The Germans endeavoured here, as elsewhere, to destroy the line as much as possible in their retreat. At Gibeon they were nearly caught. General Mackenzie sent the 9th Mounted Brigade to cut off the retreat of his enemy, and this brigade became engaged during the night. General Mackenzie himself waited south of the town with the 7th and 8th Mounted Brigades and the 12th Citizen Battery, and did not attack until daybreak. Apparently owing to the fact that General Mackenzie did not attack simultaneously with all his forces, the Germans succeeded in routing the 9th Mounted Brigade, which was compelled to retire to the east, losing about seventy prisoners, and with somewhat heavy casualties (for the numbers engaged) in killed and wounded. The main body of the Anglo-Boer troops then made its assault from the south, and captured the town, but the move was then too late, and the greater part of the German Army made good its escape. The Afrikaner prisoners were rescued, however, and about 200 Germans, two guns, and a train were captured.

General Botha's own immediate command advanced with great rapidity and on May 5 occupied Karibib. This town is the junction connecting three lines of railway. Coming from the west is the line from Swakopmund, along which General Botha had come; southwards the line runs to Windhuk; and northwards the railway goes to Otavi and Grootfontein, places in the northern sub-tropical section of the colony, towards the Portuguese frontier. General Botha wasted no time at Karibib, but rushed south, and reached Windhuk on May 12. The capital was surrendered without resistance, the main German Army having retired northwards to Otavi. The three combined armies of the south, which had been under the command of General Smuts since April 16, were still some distance from the capital. In the advance of the northern army the dry bed of the Swakop River was utilised as the main highway for the march. The fighting was of a trifling character, but the geographical difficulties, particularly the lack of water, were great. These were overcome by the admirable organisation of the Commander-in-Chief and his staff. When the Britannic troops entered the capital they found about 3,000 Europeans and 12,000 natives in the town.

A proclamation, in English, Dutch and German was immediately issued from the Rathhaus. This stated that whereas the Union forces under General Botha's command had conquered the greater part of the developed territory of German South-West Africa, including the capital, chief towns, and both seaports, he (General Botha) declared martial law in the said territory. The proclamation went on to regret the decision of the German civil and military authorities to continue the struggle, whose end was,

humanly speaking, plain; and such a continuation could only cause suffering to the civil population of the territory. The Union Government did not desire to add to this suffering, and all individuals who remained within the territory, as described in the schedule appended to the proclamation, and who complied strictly with the regulations published from time to time under martial law, could rely upon the protection of the Union Army. The civil population might remain in their homes, and attend to their ordinary avocations, but if the military operations should require it, the Commander reserved his right to deport them. The proclamation regretted that the German Commander had allowed the poisoning of water, which was a breach of the Hague Convention. Reprisals for this practice might be necessary.

The schedule here referred to defined the occupied territory as the whole of German South-West Africa except that which lay to the north of a line drawn from Swakopmund to Ongwati, thence to Karibib and Okahandja, and thence along latitude 22 degrees to the eastern boundary of the colony, including, however, such towns north of the line as were occupied by the Union troops.

For a month after the occupation of the capital little further progress was made. There was a pause before any move was made against the little German Army which had fled to the north. Towards the end of June, however, General Botha began to press up the railway from Karibib Junction to Grootfontein. Once the new advance was commenced, the great Boer leader moved with his usual rapidity. On June 21 he occupied Omaruru, virtually without opposition. Three days later he took Kalkfeld, forty miles farther up the railway. He captured Otyivaronga on June 26. The Afrikanders pushed on rapidly and Otavi was reached on July 2, and Tsumeb, the northern terminus of the railway, fell on July 8. Between Otavi and Tsumeb a considerable number of prisoners were captured for the first time in the campaign, about 750 officers and men being thus overtaken. The retreating Germans had now reached the end of the railway line, and their temporary capital, Grootfontein, was threatened. Before them were the overwhelming Afrikander forces; behind them was the sub-tropical bush, stretching away to the Portuguese frontier. Further resistance was impossible and at 2 A.M. on July 9 Dr. Seitz, the Governor, surrendered unconditionally with all the German troops in the colony. The main German Army which was thus captured at Grootfontein consisted of 204 officers and 3,292 men, with thirty-seven guns. Considerably over a thousand men had previously been accounted for, and a few guns had been captured on several occasions.

Little can be said of the strategy in a campaign in which the belligerents were so very unequally matched and the result of which was a foregone conclusion. Nevertheless, General Botha showed that he had lost none of his old skill, and the swiftness of

his marches was remarkable. General Smuts, who took command of the three southern Armies after their junction, had no very important operations to conduct. All the commanders had to deal with great geographical difficulties, but the hardest task fell to Colonel Berrange, who accomplished a wonderful march over the little known desert in the south-east of the colony. Colonel Van der Venter, who was promoted Brigadier-General, was also successful in the small actions which fell to his lot. The German commanders showed considerable skill in retreating, as is proved by the fact that the greater part of their Army remained intact until the very end, but it must be remembered that they always had the use of the railway, and were therefore able to outstrip their pursuers, who could not immediately utilise the damaged rails that the Germans left behind them. Some criticism was directed against General Sir Duncan Mackenzie, who had failed in his attempted enveloping movement at Gibeon. This General experienced the same difficulty in co-ordinating the movements of troops that was displayed on the far larger scale by the British commanders in France and Gallipoli. The total number of killed and wounded among the Union forces in the campaign against the German colony was about 500. The South Africans also lost a certain number of men in prisoners, but these were, of course, subsequently retaken. The Afrikander Army was made up partly of volunteers, and partly of men commandeered. A few men refused to obey the commandeering order, and these were imprisoned. There were only a few hundreds of these recalcitrants.

During the earlier part of the year much interest was taken in the trials of De Wet, Kemp, and other rebels. The preliminary examination of De Wet began at Bloemfontein on February 9, and was dragged out until the end of March. Perhaps the most important part of the preliminary examination was the evidence given concerning the prisoner's visit to Vrede, when he made an inflammatory speech about going to Pretoria, pulling down the British flag, and setting up a republic. On March 30, he was committed for trial on a charge of treason. Captured despatches, signed by him, were produced, and in these he stated that the eastern and northern districts of the Free State were with him, and declared his intention to go to the south of the province with his rebel commando and there raise the banner of revolt. The trial itself began on June 10, and caused intense interest both within and without the Union of South Africa. The famous prisoner pleaded "Not Guilty" to the charge of high treason, but "Guilty" to the alternative charge of sedition. The Free State Attorney-General prosecuted, and De Wet was defended by Dr. Krause. A large number of witnesses were called and some of the evidence was not unfavourable to the prisoner. For instance, a man named Engelbrecht said that he had attended one of the earliest rebellious

meetings, which was held at Kopjes, and he declared that De Wet had there stated that if Maritz had made any engagement with the Germans, he and his armed burghers would return to their homes. On the second day of the trial De Wet asked if he might withdraw the plea of "Guilty" to sedition, and he was allowed to do so. The defence took the line that the rebellion was only against the Botha Government not against the King. One of the principal witnesses for the defence was the rebel General Kemp, who emphasised the point that had been referred to in Parliament by General Hertzog, that the burghers had only been making an "armed protest," there being no intention to rebel, until the Government troops fired the first shot. The Judge asked Kemp whether he had seriously supposed that a large force of armed men would be allowed to move through the country without the Government interfering, and the witness replied in the affirmative. Evidence was given that when Maritz went over to the Germans he took about 900 men with him, and four guns, and some 600,000 rounds of small ammunition. General Smuts was also called into the witness-box, but his evidence was not very pertinent. He said incidentally, however, that he had had no idea that General Beyers would resign if the Boer Government attacked the German colony. On June 16 General Hertzog, as leader of the anti-Imperialist party in South Africa and a friend of the accused, gave evidence for the defence. He said that De Wet had been very strongly opposed to the invasion of South-West Africa, largely because there were many old Boer irreconcilables who had become residents in the German colony. Another sympathiser, Rocco de Villiers, a well-known Free Stater, said that De Wet had not conspired with Maritz to establish a republic. It was ridiculous, said this witness, to expect the Boers to fight for the British Empire, although they were quite prepared to defend the Union of South Africa, should it be attacked. On June 17 De Wet himself went into the witness-box. He stated that he regarded the campaign against the German colony as a war of aggression, and that he would therefore have nothing whatever to do with it; but that if the Union had been attacked he would have been the first to volunteer for its defence. He said that the statement that a conspiracy had been hatched against the King and Empire at Kopjes was a deliberate lie. It was true that when he was captured he was on his way to join forces with Maritz, but had he found that Maritz's contingent formed part of the German Army, he would have immediately returned home. He would not have assisted the Germans in an attempt to conquer the Union. He had deprecated hauling down the British flag at Heilbron, and he said that the rebels had not opened fire on the Government troops, until the latter had first fired on them. De Wet refused to admit that he was a rebel, but admitted that if the Government had persistently refused to revoke their decision to attack German

South-West Africa, he would have gone to the length of raising the republican flag. On June 21 De Wet was found guilty on eight of the ten counts made against him. One of the two points on which he was acquitted was perhaps the most serious of all the charges brought against him. This was the allegation that he had been proceeding to join the Germans. The court, however, accepted his statement that he had no intention of joining the enemy. The President of the court, Judge Lange, delivered the verdict, the reading of which was reported to have taken two hours. The Judge said that when the so-called "armed protest" was decided upon at Kopjes, De Wet was fully aware of the proclamation that the Government had then already issued against the Maritz revolt. After the judgment had been given, Dr. Krause said that his client had acted as he had done "from deep religious convictions." The following day, June 22, it was announced that the famous rebel had been sentenced to six years' imprisonment, without hard labour, and to a fine of 2,000*l*. The Judge said that the court did not accept the plea that the rebellion was merely an "armed protest."

Two days later Rocco de Villiers, whose name has already been mentioned, was sentenced to four years' imprisonment and a fine of 500*l*.

The trials of Kemp, van Rensburg, and the other rebels who surrendered at Upington also attracted much attention. The magisterial examination of Kemp and van Rensburg and some of their chief associates on the charge of treason took place at Johannesburg at the end of March. The strength of the *prima facie* case against the prisoners was not diminished by the fact that most of them appeared in court still wearing their German uniforms. Kemp and some of the others were committed for trial. The rebel General was tried before a special Treason Court at Pretoria in July. The evidence did not reveal many facts not already known. It was shown how Kemp accompanied Maritz into the German colony and met the Governor, Dr. Seitz, at Keetmanshoop, subsequently fighting with the Germans against the Britannic forces. Kemp, however, denied that he intended to co-operate with the Germans, and said that his signature had been appended to the proclamation urging the Boers to throw off the British yoke without his permission. The General was found "Guilty," however, and was sentenced to seven years' imprisonment and a fine of 1,000*l*. It will be noticed that the sentence was of much the same severity as that inflicted upon De Wet.

The division among the Boers on the questions raised by the rebellion spread to the ecclesiastical organisations of that race. A congress of the Dutch Reformed Church was held at Bloemfontein in January and February, and the feelings there expressed were somewhat warm, but by dint of compromising resolutions a violent split was avoided.

In the House of Assembly on March 30, General Hertzog moved an important resolution condemning some of the actions of the Government in relation to the war and the rebellion. The motion stated that it was "unconstitutional and dangerous" (1) to detain members of Parliament during the Parliamentary session, except on a definite formulated charge; (2) to fail to summon Parliament as promptly as practicable after martial law was proclaimed; and (3) to fail to summon Parliament when large sums of public money were being spent without the sanction of the legislature. The resolution also stated that whilst the war continued and martial law existed, the Union Legislature should sit at intervals of not more than two months. After a debate in which Mr. Merriman was the chief speaker for the Government, General Hertzog's motion was defeated by 62 votes to 13, the minority including the Labourites. The Union Parliament was prorogued on April 21.

Intense anger against the Germans broke out after the sinking of the *Lusitania* in May, and in some localities riots took place. The worst riots occurred at Johannesburg. At that town the crowds destroyed a large amount of property belonging to Germans, including the German Club, and many other houses, which were set on fire, some of them being almost completely gutted. It was estimated that over 500,000*l.* worth of damage was done in Johannesburg alone, several German jewellers' shops being plundered and wrecked. At Johannesburg the police did not attempt to prevent the destruction of the German property, but they managed to control the crowds to some extent and to prevent the promiscuous burning of houses not owned by Germans, although some mistakes were made. The violence was condemned by General Botha and by other responsible people.

When Generals Botha and Smuts returned from the conquest of German South-West Africa, they had most enthusiastic receptions at Cape Town, Pretoria, and other places. The Premier arrived at Cape Town on July 22, where he was welcomed by the Mayor and enormous crowds of people. In his reply to the Mayor's address, the General paid an eloquent tribute to the officers and men who had served under him. The greatest enemy he had had to face was not the Germans, but the geographical conditions of the country. The territory was the most difficult for fighting in that he had ever seen. The scanty supply of water was the greatest difficulty of all. He thought South Africa could be proud of the Army that had been raised. He paid a tribute to the protection afforded by the British Navy. The Army he had commanded had been drawn from all the provinces of the Union, and also from Rhodesia, which colony felt that its interests were identical with those of the South African Union. General Botha also said that he would appeal to the country to erect a memorial to those who had fallen in the campaign. He loved the Dutch

population of South Africa, and it was to keep their escutcheon clear that he had acted as he had done.

Several other speeches were delivered by General Botha, and also by General Smuts, in Cape Town. In a speech at a dinner given in his honour, General Smuts raised the question of the future of the conquered territory. The people must ask themselves, he said, whether the colony should be retained. It appeared evident, he declared, "that if in the future South-West Africa did not belong to the Union, the day would come when the Union would belong to German South-West Africa." Let them hold what they had conquered. Continuing, the speaker said that the Union's plain duty was to assist in the European struggle, for which the Ministry hoped thousands of men would speedily volunteer. In a subsequent speech General Smuts said that he estimated the cost of the rebellion and the operations in Damaraland at about 15,000,000*l*. General Botha referred on several occasions to the cruel manner in which the Germans had treated the natives of their colony, and he said that the natives regarded the Union troops as deliverers. Maritz had discussed the question of a rebellion with the Germans as far back as 1913.

The Premier also visited Bloemfontein, Johannesburg, and Pretoria. In a speech at the Transvaal capital he described the fertility of the interior of South-West Africa. Tens of thousands of young people from the Union could settle there with advantage. The buildings and railways were also excellent. The territory would be a new province of the Union of South Africa.

During July and August recruiting began for the South African overseas contingent. The recruiting was entirely voluntary, the Government dismissing the idea of compulsion for overseas service. Coloured men were accepted for certain special battalions.

The general election for the House of Assembly of the Union of South Africa was, apart from the war, by far the most important event which took place in any part of the British Empire during this year. The elections were fixed for October 20. The importance of the political contest lay in the fact that one of the parties was almost separatist in its views. It would not be just to describe all the Nationalists of South Africa as "pro-German." Nor would it be true to say that the Nationalist party as a whole aimed at establishing an independent Afrikaner republic. Officially General Hertzog and his followers were in favour of keeping the Union within the British Empire. But their interpretation of the imperial tie was such that if their policy were successful in South Africa and the other Dominions, the Britannic league of States could scarcely be accurately described as an empire. The rope which would then bind Great Britain and the four Dominions together would be more loose than the chains of many an alliance between sovereign States. The Dutch Nationalists had been opposed to taking any active part in the war; they criticised severely

the Government's proposal to raise a contingent for overseas service, and, in short, their view was that it was possible and right for South Africa to remain virtually neutral in Great Britain's war. This conception may be compared, as mentioned elsewhere, to the opinions held by the minute minority of extremists in Canada, and, it may be added, in Ireland. In South Africa, however, the anti-imperialist minority was by no means minute.

General Hertzog had originally belonged to General Botha's party, but he had broken away from the Premier, and had carried ten other members of the House of Assembly with him in so doing. There had, however, hitherto been no appeal to the electors on the issues which divided the two great Boers, and the chief interest of the elections, therefore, was the proof that they would afford of the amount of support which the puny minority of eleven in the Lower House possessed in the Dutch-speaking electorate. The Hertzogites were a small minority of the Boers in Parliament; were they also a small minority of the Boers in the country?

General Hertzog's policy was described as the "policy of two streams," the phrase meaning that it was his aim to keep the British and Dutch as distinct and separate nationalities in South Africa, in contradistinction to the policy of fusing the two nationalities into a single whole.

Thus it came about that the Prime Minister found himself much more closely in agreement on the most fundamental political questions with the official Opposition—the British party of Sir Thomas Smartt, the so-called Unionists—than with his own ex-adherents. The Unionists and the "South African party" of General Botha differed considerably on domestic politics, but they were all imperialists and were all, heart and soul, with Great Britain in the war. The idea of an actual coalition between the Government and the Unionists was mooted, but did not gain much support. Nevertheless, an informal agreement was in fact come to, and in only five of the 130 constituencies did candidates of the South African party and of the Unionist party oppose one another. Where a Unionist held a seat, he was not (except in the five instances) opposed by one of Botha's men, and similarly, in no case did a Unionist make an assault upon a seat previously held by a member of the South African party. Hence many of the votes cast for British candidates were the votes of Dutchmen; and many electors who strictly belonged to the Unionist party, found it necessary to vote for Boer Imperialists. Thus it follows that it is impossible to tell from the election figures what the separate strength of either the South African or the Unionist party was; one can only calculate the strength of these two Imperialist parties combined. It is, however, safe to assume that the number of English-speaking South Africans who voted for the Nationalist candidates was mathematically negligible.

A minor point of some interest was the attitude of the Labour

party. Amongst South African Socialists, as amongst Socialist parties in many other parts of the world, the war caused a schism. One group adopted the patriotic course and assisted the non-Socialist Imperialists in the prosecution of war. But another group, in the Union only a minority even of the small Labour party, were adherents of Internationalism and declared for what they styled a "war on war."

Sir Thomas Smartt, writing to Mr. Patrick Duncan on August 28, defined the attitude of the Unionist party. It was, he said, natural and right that they should give their support to the Prime Minister in all measures designed for the prosecution of the war. It would, however, be the greatest possible mistake for the Unionists to abandon the safeguard afforded by the separate existence of the Unionist party. The Premier had appealed for support "to see the war through"; that support he would receive from all loyal South Africans. But the Premier, without defining his post-war policy, had also asked for a five years' vote of confidence. It would be unwise for Unionists to give any such blank cheque. Other questions besides the war would have to be considered by the Parliament now to be elected,—taxation, the settlement of the new territory, the status of that territory in the Union, and also the status of the Union within the British Empire. The Unionist principles ought to be represented in Parliament.

The election campaign was fought with extreme violence and much bitterness. The animosity between the two sections of the Boers was surprisingly acute. General Botha visited the disaffected districts of the Orange Free State and there delivered numerous speeches. His meetings, however, were usually interrupted and often ended in a free fight. Other Ministers, particularly Mr. Malan, Minister of Mines, also visited the Nationalist strongholds, and held stormy meetings, usually terminating in a vote of "No Confidence" in the Government. The Botha programme consisted almost exclusively in a policy of "seeing the war through," and the candidates of the South African party said little about domestic politics. The Nationalist programme was very clearly defined and included the following items:—

(1) An amnesty for men imprisoned on account of their armed protest.

(2) A guarantee in the constitution of trial before sentence, in order to prevent a repetition of occurrences such as the deportation of the strike leaders (in 1914) and the execution of Fourie.

(3) The amendment of the Defence Act, "so that the Government will not have the right of invading a country in an offensive war and using unwilling men for that purpose."

The elections, as already stated, took place on October 20. The results were a blow, but not a severe blow, to General Botha. The Ministerialists came out of the contest diminished in numbers, and found themselves a minority in the House. The Unionists,

on the other hand, somewhat improved their position, thus securing a majority in the whole House for an Imperialist policy. The Nationalists, who numbered eleven in the old Parliament, obtained twenty-seven seats in the new House. The Labour party were unfortunate, and obtained only three seats, which greatly under-represented their strength in the electorate.

In the new House there were 130 members as against 121 in the previous Parliament. All these new constituencies were formed in the Transvaal, owing of course to the growth of population in that province. Nearly all the constituencies were contested.

The Nationalists swept the Free State, winning every constituency in that province except Bloemfontein, where the Unionist candidate was elected unopposed owing to his Labour opponent forgetting the nomination day. There were no other Unionist candidates in the Free State, and in most cases the unsuccessful candidates of the South African party were very badly defeated. General Hertzog himself was elected for the Smithfield division by 1,315 votes to 272. Mr. C. G. Fichardt, one of the most prominent Nationalists, was also successful in another Free State constituency—Ladybrand.

The representation of the Cape Province and the Transvaal was much more mixed, and Natal, with its predominantly British electorate, was of course overwhelmingly Imperialist. No Nationalists were elected in Natal. Three Unionists were elected for Cape Town. The Rt. Hon. J. X. Merriman was elected for Stellenbosch by a large majority. The Prime Minister retained his seat at Losberg, Transvaal, with a comfortable margin of votes. General J. C. Smuts held his position in Pretoria West, but admittedly only because he received the almost unanimous support of the British voters. Of the five members for Pretoria, four belonged to one or other of the two Imperialist parties. Sir Thomas Smartt and Sir J. P. Fitzpatrick, the two leading Unionists, were re-elected for their respective constituencies, Fort Beaufort (Cape Province) and Pretoria East. At Kimberley the Unionist, Mr. H. A. Oliver, easily defeated his Labour opponent. The contest at Uitenhage (Cape Province) excited much interest. Mr. H. E. S. Freemantle, the Englishman who had become famous as a supporter of General Hertzog, had been the member for this division, and he was now defending his seat against a Botha-ite named A. H. Garcia. Mr. Freemantle's politics were somewhat warmly disliked by the English-speaking community in the country, it being very unusual for an Englishman to side with the Boer extremists. In the result Mr. Garcia captured the seat by 1,646 votes to 1,061.

It has been already stated that the Labourites were divided among themselves, the extremists having constituted themselves into a group of "International Socialists." These latter were

utterly crushed. The leader of the Pacificists, Mr. W. H. Andrews, secured only 63 votes out of over 2,000 in Georgetown (Transvaal), the constituency that he had represented in the previous Parliament.

The membership of the new House was thus as follows: Unionists, 40; South African party, 54; Nationalists, 27; Labourites, 3; and Independents, 6.

It is of importance also to record the number of votes cast for the several parties. About 75 per cent. of the total electorate went to the polls. Thousands of voters were in South-West Africa or in Europe, performing their military duties. The South African party secured 93,374 votes, the Unionists 48,484, the Nationalists 78,301, the Labourites 25,305, and the Independents 12,029. It will be noticed that although the South African party obtained less than four times as many votes as the Labourites, yet they won seventeen times as many seats. All the Independents should be reckoned as Imperialists, and therefore the total Imperialist vote was 153,887.

As previously stated it is not possible to estimate the number of Unionists in the electorate, nor the number of Botha-ites. It is clear that the number of British who voted for the South African party was larger than the number of Dutch who voted for the Unionist party, but "British" was not synonymous with "Unionist." The relative strength of the Hertzogites and Imperialist sections of the Dutch Afrikaners is, however, immediately deducible, with approximate accuracy, from the results of the elections. The elections showed roughly what proportion of the Boers had become British Imperialists. For the relative numerical strength of British and Dutch Afrikaners is known. The Dutch were to the British approximately as six is to four.

There are, indeed, several uncertain factors which make the deduction approximate only, not exact. Twenty-five per cent. of the electors did not vote at all. In more than thirty constituencies there were no Nationalist candidates. In the Cape Province a certain number of coloured men were entitled to vote. A small percentage of the white voters were neither of British nor Dutch extraction. Nevertheless, the general deduction remains true. In spite of Mr. Freemantle's advocacy, extremely few British electors voted for the Nationalists, and since the main strength of the Hertzogites lay in the Free State, the number of coloured voters who supported them cannot have been anything but small. Hence nearly all the Nationalist electors were Boers. But the total number of Boer voters was somewhat under 60 per cent. of the whole electorate. And the number of votes given to Hertzogite candidates was just over 30 per cent. of the total number of votes cast. Hence about half, probably slightly more than half, the Dutch community adhered to anti-Imperialist opinions.

Nevertheless, in the broader sense the elections were a victory for the Prime Minister. In his war policy, he had the support of a two-thirds majority of the South African electorate. Nearly half the Dutch community of Afrikanderland had followed their great leaders, Generals Botha and Smuts, and had thrown in their lot wholeheartedly with the British Empire.

In the autumn the Government appealed for recruits to make up a South African contingent to be sent to assist in the conquest of German East Africa. The Government hoped to secure 12,000 men in addition to the brigade already enlisted for service in Europe.

The second Parliament of the Union was opened by the Governor-General, Viscount Buxton, on November 19. The Ministry had not thought it necessary to resign, despite the fact that the South African party had lost its majority in the House, because on all war questions the Government could rely upon the support of the Unionists. The Governor-General in his opening address said that the High Treason Court would soon have completed its labours, and he hoped that in special cases the sentences imposed might be reconsidered with a view to clemency. The Nationalists took the first opportunity to urge that De Wet should be liberated, and that a general amnesty should be proclaimed. The Government did not proclaim any such amnesty, but De Wet and 118 other political prisoners were liberated before the end of December.

II. RHODESIA.

This colony played an active part in the war, having regard to its small population of 32,000 white people. By the end of the year nearly 5,000 Rhodesians were under arms. Only about 500 of these went over to Europe to fight, the majority taking part in the minor campaigns in different regions of their own continent. The first Rhodesian regiment, which was raised before the end of 1914, served under General Botha in the campaign in German South-West Africa. The Rhodesians also seized that strip of the German colony which projected far out north-eastwards into British territory. A second Rhodesian regiment, numbering 650 men, was enrolled for service against German East Africa, and volunteers were also recruited to guard the frontier running between Lake Tanganyika and Lake Nyassa. A certain amount of fighting took place along the border of German East Africa, the Germans making small raids into Rhodesian territory.

III. NYASSALAND.

A small rising among the negroes of this protectorate occurred in January. The revolt took place in the Shiré Highlands, between Zomba and Blantyre. The leader of the revolutionaries

was a certain John Chilembwe, of Chiradzulo, who was head of a mission of the notorious "Ethiopian Church." It was arranged that the rising should take place simultaneously in several places, and that all the white men in the protectorate should be killed, and all the white women carried off. Fortunately the scheme miscarried; but on the night of January 23 Chilembwe and some other negroes attacked the whites on Mr. A. L. Bruce's estate at Magomera, and beheaded the manager, Mr. Livingstone, and killed and wounded several other white men. The raiders carried away Mr. Livingstone's head to Chilembwe's church at Chiradzulo, and there held a thanksgiving service for their victory. The white women and children on the estate were seized and carried off, but were subsequently released. Simultaneously an attack was made on Blantyre, where arms and ammunition were captured by the blacks. The rebellion spread no further, however, and as the police and volunteers were quickly called up, the rising was suppressed in a few days. After evading capture for more than a week, John Chilembwe was killed by the police on February 3. The rising was quite unconnected with the Anglo-German war.

IV. PORTUGUESE WEST AFRICA.

This large and naturally rich but undeveloped colony was affected to some extent by the war, owing to its contiguity to German South-West Africa. Before the end of 1914 an action had been fought between the Portuguese troops and a small body of German raiders at a place named Naulila, a few miles north of the frontier and in this engagement the Germans had been successful. After this the Germans ranged about the southern borderlands of the colony at will for several months. The Governor-General, Senhor Norton de Mattos, resigned his appointment, and the Home Government appointed General Pereira de Eca as High Commissioner in his stead. The new High Commissioner, who arrived in Africa in the spring, was expected to fulfil the double duties of Commander-in-Chief and civil administrator. Much fear was felt at one time that the Germans might stir up the wild tribes of negroes, and the colonists began to enrol themselves in volunteer corps. Some of the Boers who had immigrated into the colony also offered their services to the Government, but the offer was not accepted, and when reinforcements arrived from Portugal in the spring, the regiments of volunteers, which had never been in action, were disbanded. The new troops from Portugal drove out the Germans, and when General Botha conquered the German colony all danger was of course removed.

V. CAMEROON.

This German colony was the scene of continuous fighting on a small scale throughout the year. The territory along the coast,

with many of the towns—Duala, Buea, Edea, Mundami, Baré, Tinto, and others—fell into the hands of the French and British before the end of 1914; but the hinterland, a vast expanse of tropical jungle, was extremely difficult to conquer. The British and French forces pursued the Germans in all parts of the country, but even after seventeen months of warfare the German forces were still in being. All three belligerents employed black troops. The most notable event was, perhaps, the capture of Garua by the British and French on June 10. This town is situated far in the interior, in the north, on the bank of the River Benue. The town was gradually surrounded by the allies, and the forts protecting it were bombarded for days by heavy guns at a range of 4,000 yards. Much destruction was done by the allies' artillery, and on June 10 the German Commander offered to surrender conditionally. He was told that he must surrender unconditionally, and two hours later he agreed to do so. Some of the German mounted troops broke out and made their escape, but all the white soldiers were captured. The British had no casualties in capturing Garua.

The total strength of the allied armies was about 8,000 men, and the whole force was commanded by Major-General H. Dobell, whose head-quarters were at Duala. A small contingent of Belgian troops also took part in the campaign. The Germans had about 3,000 black soldiers, led by 250 white officers and non-commissioned officers. At the end of the year the Germans still held Yaunde which had been their capital and head-quarters for more than a year, but the British took this town on January 1, 1916, and the Germans fled southwards towards the Spanish frontier.

VI. BRITISH EAST AFRICA AND GERMAN EAST AFRICA.

Of all the colonies of the German Empire, only East Africa remained completely in German hands after seventeen months of war. The forces garrisoning German East Africa were very much more formidable than those which endeavoured to defend Cameroon. There was much fighting in January. On January 8 an expedition left Mombasa and captured the Island of Mafia which is situated off the coast of German East Africa. There was also a small naval war on Lake Victoria Nyanza. During the winter the British armed small steamers on this lake. The German port of Shirati, on the east shore of the lake, was captured on January 9, and on March 6 the British vessel *Winifred* defeated and disabled the German armed ship *Muanza*. In another part of the sphere of operations, however, the British suffered a disaster. At the beginning of the year the British coloured troops were holding the post of Jasin, within German territory near the sea coast. The little British garrison consisted of only three companies of Indian infantry,—about 300

men. On January 12, an equal force of German coloured troops made an attempt to rush the post, but were driven off. The Germans, however, were then heavily reinforced, and the British were ordered to abandon the post. The Indians found themselves surrounded by 2,000 Germans, with six guns, and about fifteen machine guns. The neighbouring British forces in the Umba Valley tried to come to the relief of their comrades, but were unable to break through the encircling lines of Germans. On January 19, the British at Jasin surrendered after expending all their ammunition, but a party of about forty of the Kashmir Rifles cut their way out, losing 50 per cent. of their strength in so doing. The twenty valorous survivors reached the main British force in the Umba Valley. In this fighting the Germans had twenty-one officers killed and wounded. Other small engagements were fought near Lake Victoria Nyanza during the summer. The Germans possessed a fleet of half a dozen armed vessels on Lake Tanganyika.

Towards the close of the year the British Government began to make serious preparations for a thorough conquest of the German colony, and 10,000 South Africans were enrolled for service in this part of the continent. General Sir Horace Smith Dorrien was given supreme command of the troops, but no great move had been made before the end of December.

VII. BELGIAN CONGO.

The progress of this colony was little interrupted by the war, and the country was effectively protected by 20,000 black troops, raised and trained by the Belgians. The important railway running from Kabulo to Lake Tanganyika was completed in March.

VIII. TRIPOLI.

The Italians had by no means completed the pacification of their new colony of Tripoli, and they had constant fighting with the Arabs in outlying districts. A serious incident occurred at Sidra in April. A detachment of 2,000 Italians with 4,000 native troops set out under the command of Colonel Miani to attack a body of rebels. After proceeding ten miles the coloured soldiers suddenly mutinied, and cut off the Italians from their base. The Italians hacked their way back to the station, but lost 800 men killed and wounded and several guns.

IX. EGYPT.

The land of the Pharaohs, which had now become a British protectorate, was surprisingly little affected by the disturbances in neighbouring countries. Throughout the year Cairo and Alexandria were visited by all manner of troops, British, Australians,

New Zealanders, Maoris, Indians, and French; for Egypt is on the main highway between East and West, and was a convenient base for the assault upon the Dardanelles. Also, the Ottoman Government threatened to reconquer the lost province of the Turkish Empire, and it was therefore necessary to hold the line of the Suez Canal with a strong force throughout the year. The Turkish attack upon the canal in February is described elsewhere. (See Turkey.)

There was a considerable amount of disaffection in the country, but owing to the strength of the Government, the seditious agitation was driven underground. Several attempts were made upon the life of the new sovereign, Sultan Hussein Kamel, but fortunately these outrages met with no success. The Egyptian revenue for the financial year 1915-16 was estimated at E. 14,756,000*l.*, and the estimated expenditure was E. 15,900,000*l.* These estimates were more than E. 2,000,000*l.* less than the corresponding figures for the previous financial year.

The estimated decrease in the revenue was due to a shrinkage under several heads, of which the most important were: Railway receipts decrease E. 943,000*l.*; Customs decrease E. 750,000*l.*; and decrease on Tobacco revenue, E. 300,000*l.* The Finance Committee of the Government pointed out that the war had adversely affected Egypt's economic position, more particularly by causing a depreciation in cotton, which was Egypt's chief export. It would therefore be necessary to reduce the expenses of the different state services as far as practicable. The estimated deficit, *viz.*, E. 1,144,000*l.*, was met by drawing on the reserve fund, which amounted to as much as E. 5,103,549*l.* on April 1, 1914; but as there was also a deficit of E. 1,700,000*l.* on the 1914-15 Budget, and as the securities in which the fund was invested had depreciated in value owing to the war, the reserve fund cannot have amounted to as much as E. 3,000,000*l.* on April 1, 1915; and this, as stated, would on that date be further reduced by over 1,000,000*l.* by the prospective deficit.

The first of the above-mentioned attempts to assassinate the Sultan took place on April 8, as His Highness was driving out from the Abdin Palace at Cairo. A fanatical Moslem of an inferior class, named Mohammed Khalil, fired a revolver at the Sultan, and the bullet only missed its mark by a few inches. The culprit was seized before he could fire a second shot. He declared that he desired to kill the Sultan because he was a traitor to Islam and to the Khalif. The would-be assassin was tried by a military court of which Brigadier-General Frith was president, and was found guilty on April 20. He was sentenced to death, and was executed by hanging on April 24. From the evidence given at the trial it appeared that the criminal had no accomplices, but that he had on several previous occasions attempted to get near enough to the Sultan to take the latter's life.

Another attempt to assassinate Sultan Hussein was made on July 9, a bomb being thrown from the window of a house in Alexandria as the Sultan's carriage drove by. The bomb failed to explode, but on this occasion the miscreant made good his escape.

A similar outrage occurred on September 4, when a young Moslem, named Saleh Abdel Latif, stabbed Fathi Pasha, Minister of Wakfs, at Cairo railway station. Fortunately the wounds did not prove fatal, and the Minister recovered in a few weeks. The assassin was caught, tried, and executed. In this case, as in the attempts against the Sultan himself, the motive appeared to be political fanaticism. Ibrahim Fathi Pasha had only been appointed to the position of Minister of Wakfs in May, but was held to be one of the ablest members of the Cabinet.

At the end of November the Arabs of Tripoli began to make trouble on the western frontier of Egypt. The powerful Sheikh El Senussi had been friendly disposed towards the Anglo-Egyptian authorities for many years, and had so shown himself since the outbreak of war. Turkish agents had, however, been undermining the influence of this Tripolitan potentate over the local Arab tribes, and in the autumn the latter began making raids into Egyptian territory. Several small actions were fought near Mersa Matroup, and on December 25 a force of about 3,000 Arabs was attacked near that place by the little British force which had been concentrated, and was driven west, leaving 200 dead on the field. The British force was composed of New Zealanders and Sikhs.

X. SOUDAN.

In the Soudan the year was uneventful, the Turkish attempt to stir up trouble by proclaiming a Jihad being a complete failure. No Moslems are more fanatical than the Soudanese, and the cause of the failure to provoke a "Holy War" is probably to be found in the fact that Turkey was herself fighting side by side with Christian nations, which made nonsense of the attempt to represent the war as an assault upon Christendom.

The financial position of the Soudan was of course adversely affected by the war, but by means of rigid economy in expenditure the Financial Secretary, Bernard Pasha, hoped to avoid a deficit in the year 1915, in spite of the decreased revenue. In the Budget of 1915, the revenue and expenditure were estimated to balance at E. 1,501,000*l.*, a figure which is E. 143,000*l.* below that of 1914. (In the Soudan the financial year begins on January 1.) Customs receipts were expected to be E. 53,000*l.* less than in the previous year, and a considerable decrease in railway profits was also anticipated. On the other side of the account it was expected that considerable economies would be effected in the expenditure on railways, posts, and telegraphs.

CHAPTER VIII.

AMERICA.

I. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

AT the beginning of the year American opinion was chiefly concentrated on the communication sent by the Government to the British Government regarding the rights of shipping to neutral countries. The text of the communication had been made public on December 31, and the general tone of the discussion in the newspapers exhibited a strong desire for the maintenance of friendly relations with Great Britain. President Wilson issued a warning to shippers, impressing upon them the importance of observing immaculate good faith in the manifests of their cargoes; and the Administration decided to certify American cargoes as to their exact contents. On January 2 several arrests were made on a ship clearing from New York, on which were found a number of German reservists who were endeavouring to return to their country under an assumed name and with fraudulent passports.

As regards internal affairs the Immigration Bill was passed by the Senate on January 2 by a vote of 50 to 7. The main purpose of the Bill was to codify the previously scattered immigration laws; but in the course of its passage through the Senate several amendments were introduced, the purpose of which was the exclusion of various new classes of immigrants. Among those excluded were persons of "the black or African race." By means of this and the so-called "literacy test," the privileges of entry into the United States were considerably reduced, and it was considered probable that the President in deference to popular feeling would veto the measure. The amendment for the exclusion of negroes was however rejected by the House of Representatives on January 7 by 252 to 75. On January 9 an agreement was reached on the Bill in conference of the two Houses; but on January 28 the Bill was vetoed by President Wilson; the veto being upheld in the House on February 4 by a very narrow margin. In his message to Congress he stated his opinion that the literacy test for aliens was not a fair test of prospective citizenship and that it involved a departure from the traditional attitude of the United States as an asylum for political refugees.

On January 6 an unfortunate accident in the New York subway led to a panic among the passengers, in the course of which more than 200 were injured by the crush.

The chief controversial measure during the first three months of the year was the Ship Purchase Bill, the main provisions of which were the establishment of a Shipping Board under the

control of, and subsidised by, the Government, which should purchase vessels for foreign trade in order to overcome the shortage which had been caused as a result of the war. Although the Bill was strongly pushed by President Wilson it never acquired any popularity. On January 23 it was definitely adopted as a party measure by the caucus of Democratic senators; but a revolt in the party combined with strong Republican opposition ultimately led to the shelving of the Bill. On February 8 when it was clear that the Democrats commanded a majority of the Senate, the Republicans resorted to extreme measures to prevent a vote being taken, and an all-night session ensued. In the following week a measure of compromise was adopted by the Democratic caucus in the House of Representatives and the Bill was passed in this House on February 17 by 215 to 122. The opposition in the Senate, however, was still maintained, and by March 4, when Congress adjourned, the Bill had still failed to pass and was finally abandoned.

On January 16 the Naval Appropriation Bill was reported to the House. It provided for two Dreadnoughts, six torpedo-boat destroyers, seventeen submarines, one oil-ship, one transport and one hospital ship, amounting in all to \$142,833,376. From this programme the House cut out five of the submarines, and the transport and hospital ships. An amendment was adopted that no money should be laid out on projectiles unless it should be demonstrated that shells of 12 inch and larger calibre could pierce 10-inch Krupp plate at a distance of 12,000 yards. With these alterations the Naval Appropriation Bill was passed by the House on February 5.

Meanwhile there was continuous discussion as to the rights of American shipping in view of the British and German procedure. The friendly relations with Great Britain were ratified by the celebration of the hundredth anniversary of peace between the two countries, which took place at New Orleans on January 8, the anniversary of the Battle of Chalmette. The general attitude of the United States was fully described in a letter written by Mr. Bryan, the Secretary of State, and published on January 25. The Government had been extensively accused by German sympathisers of partiality towards the Allies, and Mr. Bryan's communication was designed mainly to meet these charges of a breach of neutrality by showing that the Government had adhered scrupulously to the requirements of International Law. The letter, however, failed to pacify American supporters of Germany, for a meeting of German-Americans was held in Washington on January 30 to form an organisation to "re-establish genuine American neutrality," or, in other words, to prevent the sale of munitions to the Allies, and in various ways to abolish the unquestionable rights of America as a neutral country.

The announcement of the Germans on February 4 of their intention to sink any vessels in the waters around Great Britain caused considerable alarm in the United States, which was heightened by the action of the captain of the Cunard liner *Lusitania* who two days later sailed into Liverpool under the American flag. Notes addressed by the United States Government to the two belligerent Powers were published on February 12. The note to the British Government, though very friendly in tone, pointed out the risk to American citizens which might arise if this *ruse de guerre* were too frequently employed. The note to Germany which was more firmly worded emphasised the responsibility which Germany would incur if any American vessels were destroyed, or lives of American citizens lost. "It would be difficult," the note continued, "for the United States to view the act in any other light than as an indefensible violation of neutral rights, which it would be very hard indeed to reconcile with the friendly relations now happily subsisting between the two Governments." The German Ambassador, Count von Bernstorff, attempted to defend the German action by reference to the alleged improper use of British naval power, but his arguments carried little weight in the country. The British reply to the German note was published on February 20. It explained that the Government had no intention of giving an order for the use of neutral flags as a general practice. The German reply, which was published the day previously, was very conciliatory in tone, but yielded little in substance. It stated that German submarines had been instructed not to attack American vessels "so far as these can be recognised," but in the event of such vessels being sunk by any unfortunate accident the German Government disclaimed all responsibility. Germany appealed in fact to the law of necessity; at the same time a complaint was made as to the sale of war material by Americans to Great Britain. The note gave little satisfaction in America and some resentment was caused by the suggestion that the Americans were departing from their neutral attitude by selling munitions to the only side which was capable of buying them. In the same week was published the text of Sir Edward Grey's note [*v. English History*] replying to the American complaints of the detention of cargoes destined for neutral ports. Since the presentation of the American note on December 28 the condition of American trade had so greatly improved that there was obviously no ground for further complaint.

On February 22 identic notes were again addressed to the Governments of Great Britain and Germany making various proposals, among which were the abandonment by belligerents of the use of floating mines, of submarines to attack merchant vessels and of neutral flags as a *ruse de guerre*; also that Great Britain should refrain from placing food on the list of absolute

contraband, on condition that Germany received the food through agencies which guaranteed that it went only to the civil population. Germany in her reply, which was published on March 3, accepted the American proposals in the main, but held out for the importation of other raw materials in addition to food as provided by the Declaration of London. The reply of Great Britain was dated March 15. It informed the Government of the Order in Council signed by King George on March 11 in which was announced the intention to establish a blockade of Germany. It was at once recognised in America that Great Britain had a perfect right to establish a blockade of Germany. Identic notes addressed in reply to the British and French Governments confined themselves to asserting the right of conveying non-contraband goods to belligerent territory through neutral countries. Thereafter there was little further disagreement between the American and British Governments.

With the German Government, on the other hand, relations soon became more strained. Shortly before its internment the *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* had sunk the American sailing ship *William P. Frye*, and a note was addressed to the German Government suggesting compensation to the extent of \$228,059.54. The German Government agreed to pay the suggested compensation, not on the grounds of International Law, but on two treaties of 1799 and 1822 between Prussia and the United States. But a more serious state of affairs was provoked by the action of Count von Bernstorff in publishing a memorandum without previously consulting the American Government, in which that Government was charged with un-neutral conduct in permitting arms and ammunition to be shipped to the Allies. It was established that this memorandum had been authorised by the German Foreign Office; and the slight thus involved upon the American Government caused great indignation throughout the country. The allegation of un-neutral conduct was answered by the Government in a note published on April 21. It referred to the "false impressions" of the German Ambassador and pointed out that the sale of war material to a belligerent was thoroughly in accordance with the laws of neutrality and that any alteration in these laws during the progress of a war must necessarily be a partial and un-neutral proceeding. On April 20 the President made a speech at a luncheon of the Associated Press, in which he urged upon American citizens the duty of placing the interests of their own country before those of any of the belligerents. The American reply, although civil in tone, indicated clearly the feelings of the Government as to Count von Bernstorff's breach of diplomatic courtesy. A few days later Dr. Dernburg, speaking at Brooklyn, declared that Germany would not evacuate Belgium until the seas had been neutralised.

Meanwhile Congress had concluded its business and adjourned

on March 4. The Ship Purchase Bill, as already stated, and the Rural Credits Bill were both abandoned; and one of the last acts before the adjournment was the passage of the resolution empowering the President to prevent ships from carrying supplies from American ports to belligerent war-ships. On March 22 the President announced that no extra session of the Senate or Congress would be called before December.

A peculiarly horrible case of lynching occurred on January 14 at Monticello, Ga. The mob broke into the jail and seized a negro who with his son and two daughters had been lodged there on a charge of assaulting an officer of the law. The mob first hung the two daughters, then the son, and lastly the father who was left hanging with the bodies of his children beneath his feet. They were all four riddled with bullets; but the offer of a reward of \$500 for the arrest and conviction of the first five leaders of the mob led to no result.

At the primary elections for the office of Mayor of Chicago on February 23 Mr. Carter H. Harrison, who had already had five terms of office, was defeated by a large majority, and the subsequent election of a Republican by a very large majority was widely regarded as indicating a decline in the prospects of the Democrats for the Presidential election of 1916. The election was of interest as being the first in which women had voted, though their influence did not seem to have been exerted preponderantly in favour of either side. The cause of the Democrat had been strongly supported by the leading German-Americans, and his defeat showed how little such questions were allowed to carry weight.

The United States Navy incurred a most unfortunate loss on March 25 when submarine F4 disappeared near Honolulu and the lives of all the crew were lost. At the beginning of April Rear-Admiral Bradley A. Fiske resigned his position as Aide for operations in the Navy Department owing to differences of opinion as to naval policy with Secretary Daniels. During the last session of Congress a new office had been created of Chief of Naval Operations; and on the resignation of Rear-Admiral Fiske the President appointed Captain William S. Benson to this office.

During the month of March the exports of the United States amounted to \$299,445,498, as against \$187,499,234 for the same period the year previously. Imports at the same time showed a decrease; the exports to Germany during this month had fallen to \$283,816, as compared with \$28,213,120 the previous year. Notwithstanding the increase of exports, the war had involved the country up to the end of March in a net loss of European trade amounting to more than \$34,000,000.

On May 3 the Senate of Pennsylvania voted by forty-four to six a Bill for the limitation of child labour, backed by Governor Brumbaugh. The Bill was attacked on the ground that it implied the encroachment of the chief executive upon the legislature;

and the tendency of thought was indicated by the little importance generally attached to this form of encroachment.

The attention of the entire country now became riveted on the war in a much more serious and direct manner. On May 1 advertisements were inserted by direction of the German Embassy in Washington in newspapers throughout the country warning American citizens against travelling on any ship flying the flag of Great Britain or her Allies. The warning attracted a certain amount of attention; but the sinking of the *Lusitania* six days later caused universal horror and indignation throughout America. More than a hundred American citizens were drowned; and an expression of regret for the loss of American lives telegraphed by the German Government did little to stem the strong revulsion of feeling against Germany caused by the tragedy. On May 13 a note was despatched to Germany dealing with the whole subject of German methods of submarine warfare, including not only the sinking of the *Lusitania* but also that of the *Falaba* on March 28; of the *Cushing* on April 28 and of the *Gulflight* on May 1. The President took the opportunity to criticise the action of the German Embassy in addressing the people of the country through the newspapers, which he characterised as a "surprising irregularity." If this protest had little immediate effect, it was noticed at all events that the advertisements of the German Embassy ceased to appear in the newspapers.

The German reply dated May 29 reasserted that the *Lusitania* was a British auxiliary cruiser armed with guns, and that she carried a cargo of munitions in opposition to the American law for passenger ships. The German Government endeavoured to lay the blame for the occurrence entirely on Great Britain; and once more undertook to abandon her present methods of submarine warfare if England in turn would give up the embargo on food and raw material entering Germany. The note did little, however, to relieve the tension in the country. On June 8 the Cabinet Council decided upon a further note insisting more firmly on the position already taken up in the first.

The second American note, however, was not despatched without a serious difference of opinion in the Administration. Mr. Bryan, the Secretary of State, found himself unable to endorse the firm line insisted upon by the President, and finally he determined to resign his office and withdraw into private life. For some time previously Mr. Bryan had differed from the President with regard to the tone in which the German Government should be addressed. When the second note regarding the *Lusitania* was under discussion, the Secretary of State urged that its despatch should be delayed to give time for the investigation of the facts and charges alleged by the German Government; the President, however, held that the events were already sufficiently clear to justify a strong line of action. Mr. Bryan was succeeded

as Secretary of State by Mr. Robert Lansing,—a purely non-political appointment which gave much public satisfaction.

At the beginning of June a further note was received from Germany with regard to the attacks on the American ships *Gulflight* and *Cushing*. As regards the *Gulflight* the German Government expressed its regret, and agreed to pay full recompense for all damage incurred by American citizens. The note, however, questioned the reality of the alleged attack by a German aviator on the *Cushing* and invited the United States Government to furnish it with more information on the matter.

The reply of the German Government to the second American note was dated July 8 and published in the newspapers on July 10. It again attributed to England the responsibility for the sinking of the *Lusitania* and endeavoured to impress upon American opinion the German regard for humanity. The note pointed out that it was impossible for submarines when attacking commerce to carry out rules of warfare which were framed under altogether different conditions, long before the invention of submarines. Proposals were made by which under certain conditions citizens of the United States might be allowed to enter the so-called area of war. A few of the German-American newspapers tried to make out that the tendency of the German note was conciliatory and amicable to America; but the vast majority of public opinion held that it did little to relieve the situation, and the people were specially incensed at the suggestion that they should be "permitted" to travel on parts of the high seas where they had every right to travel without reference to the German or any other Government. It was noticed, however, that the German submarines had latterly been more careful to give notice to a ship which they intended to attack; and it was hoped that this manifestation of humanity might be the prelude to a policy of more definite conciliation.

Public opinion was so much taken up with these events that there is very little to be recorded about American politics during the summer months. On June 21 the Supreme Court delivered a judgment of the first importance in the case of the Oklahoma franchise law. For a long time past a number of the Southern States had passed laws which curtailed in various ways the franchise of the negroes, and therein came dangerously near to an infringement of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States. The laws referred to were of course not directly in opposition to that amendment; they were regarded, however, as subterfuges, and endeavoured by establishing literacy or property or other qualifications to limit the right of negroes to the vote. The Supreme Court now unanimously decided that all election laws in Oklahoma and other States which sought indirectly to invalidate the Constitution were null and void. It was noticed with interest that three of the judges who decided the case, in-

cluding Chief-Justice White himself, were themselves Southerners. The court upheld the criminal conviction of election officials in Oklahoma for denying the vote to negroes; and it also awarded damages to individual negroes who had been refused admission to the registration booths in Annapolis, Maryland. The decision was regarded as of high importance as testimony to the solidarity of the American people in support of their Constitution.

In the middle of July the University of Illinois Appropriation Bill was passed, allotting to that institution the sum of \$5,000,000 for two years. Under the Mill Tax Law the entire proceeds of the tax had been devoted to the use of the University, but attempts were made during the progress of the Bill to insist upon the division of so large a sum with various other institutions. The Mill Tax Law had been established under a Republican regime, but the Democratic Governor Dunne, contrary to expectations in various quarters, warmly defended the appropriation to the University of the largest sum ever voted by a single Act to any one educational institution in the country.

About the same date the Wisconsin Senate amended a Bill to give the Governor complete control of the State University. Under the original Bill a central board of fifteen was set up which was to be responsible for the entire educational system of the State; and this central board was to be appointed by the Governor. As a result of the amendment, the board was reduced to five; its jurisdiction was limited to financial matters, and only one of its members was to be appointed by the Governor, the remainder being selected by certain University or public authorities. The Governor immediately announced his intention of vetoing the amended Bill.

Diplomatic relations with Germany were again brought to an acute stage by the sinking of the White Star Liner *Arabic* on August 19 while sailing from Liverpool to New York. Although most of the passengers were saved two Americans lost their lives. The tension was to some extent relieved by the action of Count Bernstorff who presented to the State department a request from his Government that no definite line should be taken until the German side of the case had been heard. "If Americans should actually have lost their lives this would naturally be contrary to our intentions; the German Government would deeply regret the fact and begs to tender sincerest sympathies to the American Government." On August 25 the German Chancellor issued a statement to the German Press in which he stated that the Imperial Government would give complete satisfaction to the United States if it was shown that the commander of the submarine had exceeded his duties. And on August 26 Count Bernstorff again assured the State Department that it was the intention of his Government to provide a peaceful settlement of the whole submarine dispute. On

September 1 an official communication from the Ambassador was published in the American Press, stating that "liners will not be sunk by our submarines without warning and without safety of the lives of non-combatants, provided that the liners do not try to escape or offer resistance." This German concession was immediately hailed throughout the daily Press as an immense triumph for American diplomacy and a justification of the course pursued by the President. But the rejoicings were destined quickly to be damped by the further sinking without warning of the Allan Line steamship *Hesperian* on the evening of September 4, only three days after the pacific assurance of Count Bernstorff. An official memorandum on this subject was received from the German Government on September 16, when it was denied that the *Hesperian* had been sunk by a torpedo and stated that no German submarine had been in that neighbourhood on the day in question. This statement, however, was immediately controverted by the British Government, which pointed out that other ships had been sunk on September 4 and 5 close to the scene of the disaster to the *Hesperian*. Fragments of metal were found on the deck of the *Hesperian* which it was said could only have come from a torpedo; thus no conclusion was reached as to the cause of the sinking of the vessel.

A more satisfactory result, however, was attained in the case of the *Arabic*. On October 2 Count Bernstorff notified to Mr. Lansing the intention of the German Government to alter their methods of submarine warfare; and after one or two modifications of the German note a complete agreement seemed to have been reached. The German Government accepted the affidavits of British officers that the *Arabic* had no intention of ramming the submarine. The German Government consequently disavowed the act, expressed its regret and offered to pay an indemnity for the lives of American citizens who were lost. The end of the negotiations was received with very different feelings in England and Germany. In Germany the Press expressed its indignation that the Government should have accepted the statements of British officers; in England the abandonment of the German methods of sinking ships without warning was attributed to the ill-success of their submarine campaign; and the agreement to abandon that campaign was regarded merely as an attempt to make a virtue of necessity.

While these negotiations were in progress with Germany, a further cause of dispute had arisen with Austria-Hungary. At the beginning of September the British Authorities arrested at Falmouth Mr. James J. Archibald, an American newspaper correspondent, who was found to be carrying despatches from the Austrian Ambassador Dr. Dumba to Baron Burian at Vienna. An examination of the despatches disclosed the fact that Dr. Dumba was engaged in an attempt to initiate strikes in America

which should hold up the manufacture of munitions in that country. "We can disorganise and hold up for months, if not entirely prevent the manufacture of munitions in Bethlehem and the middle West, which in the opinion of the German military attaché is of great importance and amply outweighs the expenditure of the money involved." The complicity of the Austrian Ambassador in an attempt to stir up industrial discontent in the country by means of bribery caused great indignation in the newspapers, which was by no means relieved by an explanation issued by the Ambassador himself describing his plan as "a very open and direct method." On September 17 Dr. Dumba addressed a letter of explanation and defence to Mr. Lansing which was published in the papers two days later. He perceived, however, that his career as Ambassador in the United States must come to an end, and indeed President Wilson had already demanded his recall; refusing to be satisfied with the first proposal of the Austrian Government to give their emissary "leave of absence." Dr. Dumba accordingly received definite orders for his recall and sailed from New York on October 5.

Discussion with Germany concerning the sinking of the *William P. Frye* lingered on throughout the summer. On September 19 the German Foreign Office notified to the American Government that they would not under any circumstances destroy ships carrying conditional contraband, though reserving the right to destroy ships carrying absolute contraband when they could not conveniently be taken into port. The question of the legality of the destruction of the *Frye* was to be submitted to arbitration at the Hague and the amount of the indemnity to be paid was to be decided by a commission of experts appointed by the two Governments.

The question of Mexico continued to give trouble at intervals throughout the year. At the beginning of August it was announced that a Conference would be held to consider the situation, at which representatives would be present from Brazil, Argentina, Chile, Uruguay, Bolivia and Guatemala. On October 9 Mr. Lansing issued a statement that this Pan-American Conference had unanimously decided to recognise the faction led by Carranza as the *de facto* Government in Mexico. Assurances with regard to the future had been obtained from Carranza, and President Wilson formally ratified the arrangement on October 11, the recognition dating from the 19th. In December Mr. Henry P. Fletcher, Ambassador to Chile, was nominated as the American representative in Mexico.

On August 25 Mr. Lansing issued a statement as to the intentions of the United States with regard to the Island of Hayti. The Parliament of that country was given up to September 17 to agree to a treaty proposed by the United States for taking over the control of the finances of the island. The Government gave

pledges that it would refrain from the acquisition of any foreign territory, but intimated that if the treaty was refused force would be used to establish it. The treaty was accepted and signed on September 16. Under its terms the United States acquired a financial protectorate over the Republic for ten years and recognised the Government in Hayti of President Dartiguenave. A Haytian receivership of customs and a native constabulary force were established under American control. Some modification was subsequently made out of deference to the feelings of the Republic. The powers originally destined to be conferred on an American financial adviser were transferred to the Bank of Hayti, and the arrangement thus coincided more nearly with that already in force in Santa Domingo.

Towards the end of September the Anglo-French commission concluded the negotiation of the terms of a loan of \$500,000,000. The loan was to run for five years at 5 per cent. interest, and was sold to the underwriters at 96 and to the investing public at 98 in denominations of \$100. Although some opposition was raised in the country the loan was a complete success, being in fact considerably over-subscribed.

Events on the Continent of Europe were meanwhile causing much anxiety as to the preparedness of the United States for war. In October Mr. Daniels, Secretary for the Navy, announced his proposals for a five years' naval building programme, the intention being to double the size of the Fleet by the addition of fifteen to twenty Dreadnoughts and battle cruisers with a proportionate number of smaller vessels. The cost of the first year's programme was estimated at \$248,000,000. A few days later Mr. Redfield, Secretary of Commerce, announced the formation of an American Trust Company, similar in principle to the Netherlands Oversea Trust, for the purpose of ensuring that goods despatched to neutral countries should not be passed on to Germany.

The feeling against Germany reached a higher point than any yet attained by the disclosure in the latter half of October of a huge system of German espionage, the purpose of which was to blow up with bombs vessels carrying munitions of war to Europe and in general to dislocate all American industry that could be at all serviceable to the Allies. Lieutenant Fay was the first culprit to be arrested. He affirmed that he had been fighting in France in the earlier part of the war, and that he had come to America with the connivance of the Berlin Authorities for the purpose already named. Three other Germans were arrested on the same charge, and the confession of Fay implicated Captain Boy-Ed and Captain von Papen, the German Naval and Military Attachés in Washington. At the beginning of November twenty-five arrests had already been made, mostly on charges of stealing magnetos and other essential parts of motor trucks awaiting shipment. A few days later Dr. Goricar, a former Austrian

consular officer, issued a statement to the effect that every Austrian consulate was the centre of an organised campaign against munition factories, and that he himself had resigned rather than take part in the work. Dr. Goricar was, however, immediately repudiated by the Austro-Hungarian Embassy at Washington. On November 22 the Federal Authorities addressed to the various State Authorities throughout the country an urgent message calling upon them to do their utmost to suppress the incendiarism and other acts of violence by which the emissaries of Germany were endeavouring to prevent the export of munitions. On the same day Karl Bünz, managing director of the Hamburg-Amerika Line, with three other officers of the line, were placed on their trial, on a charge of conspiring to violate American neutrality by sending or attempting to send stores from American ports to German war vessels. The prosecution alleged that 150,000*l.* had been received from Germany through the house of Speyer & Co. of New York, and that sixteen or seventeen ships had been fitted out as supply vessels for the German cruisers in the Atlantic. It was stated, moreover, that the whole control and direction of this sum had been in the hands of Captain Boy-Ed, the German Naval Attaché at Washington. The sum involved was subsequently shown to be considerably larger than that at first named and it was proved that Captain Boy-Ed if not responsible for its expenditure was at all events fully informed as to what was going on. On December 2 the Judge decided that the conveyance of stores to German warships was lawful, although such stores would of course be liable to capture. But on the following day Mr. Lansing announced that the Government had demanded the immediate recall of Captain Boy-Ed and Captain von Papen on the ground of their improper activities in naval and military matters. Captain von Papen's offence was that of being involved in the attempt to interfere with the manufacture of munitions. Among the papers taken from Mr. Archibald at Falmouth had been one in which Captain von Papen writing to his wife had referred to "those idiotic Yankees," an expression which by no means conduced to his popularity in the country.

On December 3 a verdict of guilty was returned against Dr. Karl Bünz and the three other conspirators on the charge of filing false clearance papers for vessels chartered to supply German warships at sea. Bünz was sentenced to one and a half years in the Federal Penitentiary, and the Hamburg-Amerika Line was fined one dollar; but all the defendants were admitted to bail in 2,000*l.* pending appeal. The demand for the recall of Captains Boy-Ed and von Papen was at first refused but afterwards acceded to by Germany; and on December 11 the State Department announced that it had requested a safe conduct for these two officers from the British and French Embassies.

In the first week of November the American note was

delivered to Great Britain protesting against interference with neutral trade. The main points of the note were that the belligerent Powers had no right to take neutral vessels into port for purposes of search; that the blockade instituted by the Order in Council of March 11 was illegal since it was neither effective nor impartial and since it involved neutral ports; and lastly that the suggested appeal to British Prize Courts was valueless since the laws and regulations which bound those courts were themselves the subjects of contention. The publication of the note was received with satisfaction throughout the American Press, though it was doubted whether it would lead to much improvement.

The sinking of the *Ancona* on November 7, involving the loss of many American lives, caused severe tension with Austria. An official Austrian apology received on November 17 admitted that the *Ancona* had been torpedoed before all the passengers had been taken off. Mr. Penfield and Mr. Nelson Page, the American Ambassadors in Vienna and Rome, were instructed to obtain the answers to a series of questions drawn up for the elucidation of the matter. On December 12 was published a sharp note addressed by Mr. Lansing to Austria-Hungary in which he described the sinking of the *Ancona* as "the wanton slaughter of defenceless non-combatants." The Government of the United States demanded that the Government of Austria-Hungary should denounce the sinking of the *Ancona* as an illegal and indefensible act, punish the commander of the submarine and make reparation by the payment of an indemnity for the citizens of the United States who were killed or injured. It requested that this demand "might be acceded to promptly," expressing its conviction that the Austrian Government would not "sanction or defend an act which is condemned by the world as inhuman and barbarous, which is abhorrent to all civilised nations and which has caused the death of innocent American citizens." At the conclusion of a Cabinet meeting on December 17, Mr. Lansing announced that the Austrian reply had been in no way satisfactory and a rupture of relations was believed to be imminent.

The change of attitude of President Wilson was disclosed in his Message on the opening of Congress. Various indications seemed to show that the President's peace policy was not as popular as commonly supposed. At the local elections in various Eastern States on November 2 the Republicans had shown some increase of strength. Massachusetts chose Mr. McCall, a Republican, as Governor instead of the Democrat supported by President Wilson; that State, as also the States of New Jersey, Pennsylvania and New York, showed unmistakably their objection to female suffrage, notwithstanding the support of the President.

Before the opening of Congress various efforts were made to

induce the President to mediate in European affairs. Mr. Bryan issued a manifesto calling upon the President to interfere at once; and the newspapers of German sympathies sketched the sort of terms that Germany would be ready to accept. Mr. Henry Ford took a leading part in the efforts to procure American mediation. At the end of November he finished fitting out a peace ship, the *Oscar II.*, which was to sail to Europe with the view of inducing the soldiers of both belligerents to leave their trenches on Christmas Day and not to return to them. The vessel sailed on December 4 for Norway, but passports were refused for landing in any of the belligerent countries.

These various efforts for the attainment of peace received a severe set-back in the President's message to Congress on December 7. The President began by deploring the partisan spirit which had carried away various citizens of the United States and led them to form plots for the destruction of property and to conspire against the neutrality of the Government. He criticised severely the action of those who placed their European sympathies above their regard for the peace and dignity of their own country, and he insisted that the necessity had now arisen for legislation which should meet these new conditions and put the country in a complete state of preparation.

The President then went on to re-assert the spirit of the Monroe doctrine, but he added that the standing army which should be maintained ought never to exceed the smallest size that was necessary for the safety of the country in time of peace. Turning to the Ship Purchase Bill, he emphasised the need at the present time for the Government to advance money for the increase and development of the mercantile marine, and he stated that proposals would again be made to the new Congress for the execution of this project. As regards raising additional revenue, the President suggested an increase of income tax, the taxation of petrol and naphtha, of motor cars and internal combustion engines, of pig iron and fabricated iron and steel. He suggested further that a commission of inquiry should be appointed to consider what legislation might be adopted for assisting the railways in dealing with the problem of transportation.

The President's Message was on the whole well received, though fiercely criticised by Mr. Roosevelt; it was understood as an expression of the fact that the country, although fervently desirous of peace, was not prepared to tolerate continued aggression on the part of Germany.

A week later the American defence scheme was published. The naval programme, which was designed for five years, was calculated to make the United States at the end of that period the second naval Power of the world. There were at present either built or being built twelve super-Dreadnoughts, twenty-two battleships; eleven armoured cruisers, fourteen light cruisers, sixty-

two destroyers, thirteen torpedo-boats, and thirty submarines. By 1921, under Mr. Daniels' scheme, there would be built or being built twenty-seven first line battleships, six battle-cruisers, twenty-five battleships of the second line, ten armoured cruisers, thirteen light cruisers, eighteen cruisers of other types, 108 destroyers, eighteen fleet submarines, 157 coast submarines, and a number of other vessels. But the more critical part of the Government scheme was that concerned with the supply of men, always a difficulty even at present. Mr. Daniels said that the Navy needed 7,500 more men, 2,500 more apprentices, and 1,500 more marines.

The Army proposals were of a less drastic character. During the present year the American Army was supposed to consist of about 100,000 men; but after the necessary deductions for the Colonial Service not more than half that number remained for the defence of the United States, and of these not more than 30,000 were mobile. Behind the Regular Army there was the States Militia of 120,000 men. The General Staff now asked for an eventual standing Army of 250,000 men with a reserve of the same number; backed by 500,000 second-line troops. But the President did not make such large demands upon the country. He contented himself with asking for 40,000 Regulars and a Continental Army of 400,000 "disciplined citizens" to be raised in increments of 133,000 a year. In view of the conflicting opinions in the country in regard to national defence, the consensus of public opinion was in support of the President's moderation, and favoured the traditional policy of relying for the defence of the country upon a powerful and efficient Navy. But even on the subject of the Navy, the Government fell short of the demands made by the General Board and Admiral Dewey, who had insisted that by 1925 the American Navy should be equal to the most powerful navy possessed by any other country in the world.

The second American note to Austria on the sinking of the *Ancona* was published on December 22. It again emphasised the culpable and lawless action of the commander of the submarine in sinking a vessel while the passengers were on board and the engines stopped; and it reiterated the demands of the previous note. At length, just before the end of the year, the incident was closed by an expression of deep regret from Austria-Hungary, and an undertaking to indemnify American citizens for damage they might have sustained, even though such damage could not be rigorously proved.

Minor questions of international law continued to occupy attention up to the end of the year, and grave misgivings were expressed as to the fate which might overtake the country in the ensuing year. Notwithstanding these international discussions, the year was in most respects highly prosperous for the United States.

II. CANADA.

In Canada, as in other parts of the British Empire, the Great War overshadowed all other political issues. The large majority of the Canadian nation were enthusiastic in their support of the British cause, and immense interest was taken in the doings of the contingents of volunteers who proceeded to the seat of war in Europe. On the question of the war, Conservatives and Liberals were almost entirely at one, although the speeches of the leaders of the two great political parties struck slightly different notes. This was due not to any difference of opinion about the causes of the war then raging, but to the dissimilar ideals of empire held by the Conservatives and Liberals respectively. Sir Robert Borden, the Prime Minister, laid great stress in all his speeches upon the fact that Canada was no longer a protected colony, but was, as he termed it, "a participating nation," and he urged that after the war it would be impossible to perpetuate the existing anomalous status of Canada and the other self-governing dominions. Foreign policy and all questions of an extra-imperial character ought, declared the Premier, to be controlled in future not by the United Kingdom alone, but conjointly by the United Kingdom and the self-governing dominions. The citizens of Canada and Australia ought to have the same imperial rights as the electors of the British Isles.

War speeches of a similar character were delivered all over the country by the other Conservative leaders, notably by the Hon. A. Meighen, the Solicitor-General of the Dominion, whose orations roused much enthusiasm in the Western Provinces. Mr. Meighen went so far as to say that the Canadian Government were prepared to bankrupt their country rather than fail in the struggle against Germany.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the revered leader of the Liberal party, was not a whit behind the Conservatives in his desire to support Great Britain in this particular war, but he made it clear that he dissented from the federationist ideals of his political opponents. The Canadians, he said, were a free people, and this freedom was "at once the glory and honour of England, which has granted it, and of Canada, which uses it to assist England." Canada would, however, have fulfilled all her legal obligations by undertaking local defence, by defending her own shores and her own commerce. Whether or not Canadian troops should be sent to other parts of the British Empire or to foreign countries to assist in the Empire's war was, said Sir Wilfrid, entirely a matter for the Canadian Parliament to decide. This was a state of things that Liberals had no desire to see altered. The fact that Liberals had co-operated in sending out foreign-service contingents in this particular war, must not be held to imply that they

acknowledged an obligation to do so in any and every war in which Great Britain might become involved.

The great majority of Canadians, whether of Quebec or of the old English-speaking provinces, or of the new provinces of the West, adopted one or other of these two attitudes towards the world conflict; and for the immediate purpose of waging war there was, as already stated, no practical difference between the two positions. There existed, however, a minority of Canadian citizens who were apathetic or hostile to the nation's war policy. There were about half a million people in Canada of German or Austrian extraction and it was not surprising that these showed no enthusiasm for the war, and were in many cases bitterly anti-British. Again, the extreme French Nationalists of Quebec, whose adhesion to the British connexion had always been of the loosest, were openly indifferent to the cause of the European Entente, and Mr. Bourassa, the leader of this group, strongly criticised the Imperialism of the Prime Minister's speeches. The separatist tendencies of these Nationalists proved stronger than the sympathies which they might have been expected to show with the sufferings of France and Belgium. The attitude of the Quebec Nationalists was, in theory, closely comparable to that of the Nationalist party in South Africa, although the latter were a much stronger political force, numerically and otherwise.

Finally, the Socialists, or many of them, had adopted the philosophy of Internationalism and had disavowed the whole patriotic theory of political ethics. They refused to identify themselves with the cause of Britain and her allies, and condemned all the European Great Powers as jointly responsible for the conflict,—a view-point resembling that of the Independent Labour party in England. The Canadian Socialists were, however, numerically a more insignificant group even than the British Independent Labour party, and it may be repeated that all these dissentient groups together formed only a small minority of the Canadian people.

The troops raised in Canada to assist the Empire amounted before the end of the year to over 200,000 men, this total including the soldiers still training in Canada, as well as those who had already proceeded to Europe. The regiments admittedly consisted of somewhat raw material. Canada was far from being a military country, and the Militia was not a very warlike force. Canada had neither the martial traditions of South Africa nor the military training of Australia, but the pioneering life led by many of her citizens was well calculated to prepare them for the hardships of campaigning, and all over the Dominion great pride was felt in the achievements of the Canadian contingent in its first serious engagement at the second battle of Ypres. Of the numerous recruiting camps the largest and most important were those at Toronto, Winnipeg, and St. John's,

Whilst the number of soldiers raised in Canada was thus small,¹ the country vigorously prepared to adapt itself to war conditions in other respects. Great efforts were made both to increase production and to economise in expenditure. It was calculated that the total area under cultivation in 1915 was no less than 25 per cent. greater than in 1914—a truly wonderful achievement. The importance of this increase in the supply of agricultural produce, both to Great Britain and to other friendly countries, is apparent when the unfortunate effects of the closing of the Dardanelles is remembered. Moreover, the Dominion Government saw the importance of encouraging the live-stock industry. Cattle-breeding has not been developed in Canada during the last fifteen years in anything approaching the same proportion as crop-growing, and hence the authorities advised that mixed farming should in future be carried on more extensively than heretofore. The large rise in the price of fodder was, however, a handicap to this industry in 1915.

One of the most important Bills passed during the spring session of Parliament was that giving Canadian soldiers the franchise in the event of a general election being held during the war. It was arranged that in this contingency six scrutineers should be sent to France to supervise the voting amongst the soldiers.

In the spring session there were also some important debates on the Budget. The Government proposed to raise the Customs duties in general by 7½ per cent., but to increase the duties on goods from Great Britain by 5 per cent. only. The Liberals condemned the higher duties on British manufactures, and declared that the Government were seizing the opportunity afforded by the war to favour privileged interests in Canada. The Ministry adhered to their proposal, however, and argued that the new scheme would actually increase the British preference by 2½ per cent. Moreover, it was declared that higher protection was justifiable and necessary in a period when there was much unemployment. The Opposition favoured heavier direct taxation, but for the Federal Parliament to impose income taxes would be to invade the sources of provincial revenue. The estimated national expenditure for the financial year 1915-16 was 30,059,884*l.* under the Consolidated Fund and 44,092,075*l.* under the head of capital expenditure. This capital expenditure was for the construction of canals and other public works. The expenditure out of income included the ordinary cost of the upkeep of the Militia, but not the extraordinary expenditure on the war. The industrial depression mentioned by the Ministerial speakers in the debates on the Budget was greatly relieved during the year by the

¹ If Canada had recruited in the same proportion as Great Britain did, she would have raised over 600,000 men; but of course political and economic conditions in the two countries were very different.

enormous orders for munitions of war that the British Government placed with Canadian manufacturers. It was computed that these orders reached an aggregate value of 50,000,000*l*.

In the summer Sir Robert Borden, the Prime Minister, visited England, and had prolonged conferences with imperial statesmen. On July 29 he was presented with the "Freedom of the City of London," and on that occasion he made an interesting and important speech. After stating how greatly he appreciated the honour which had been conferred upon him, the Premier said that of all the great achievements of the British race, the greatest was the upbuilding of an empire bound together by such ties as those which united their Empire. In the Dominions beyond the seas the same ideals of liberty and justice which had produced a free democracy in Great Britain had led to the establishment of self-governing institutions. Those who had thought that liberty would drive the nations of the Empire asunder had been very much mistaken. The action of Canada in the war had not been due to any one statesman or group of statesmen, it had been due to the spirit of the Canadian people. The impulse which had brought Canadians, both English and French Canadians, and the soldiers of the other Dominions to fight in Europe was the love of liberty. The overseas Dominions were also convinced that the war had been forced upon the Empire, and that it was impossible with honour to stand aside and see an unoffending nation, whose independence Great Britain had guaranteed, trampled under foot. The speaker had no doubt of the issue of the war, for the resources of the British Empire alone were infinitely greater than those of Germany, and the population of the British Isles and the Dominions was almost equal to that of Germany. The Premier had visited the Canadian soldiers at the front and had been deeply impressed with the spirit of determination which actuated them. During the war, little could be said of constitutional relations. But upon what had been built in the past, an even nobler fabric might be erected. That structure must embody the autonomy of the self-governing dominions, and also of the British Isles, but it must also embody the majesty and power of a united Empire, more effectively organised for the purpose of preserving its own existence. To those who would be called to design this splendid fabric, crowning the labours of the past and embodying all the hopes of the future, he and all bid God-speed in their great task.

The importance of the closing passages of the speech can scarcely be over-rated, for they amounted to nothing less than a formal pronouncement in favour of some measure of imperial federation, made by the leading statesman of the greatest of the Dominions, on an occasion when all the Empire would hear and mark his words.

In the autumn there was much discussion on the proposal to prolong the life of the Federal Parliament, and many petitions were sent to the Prime Minister urging him to do so. In the ordinary course of events the life of the Parliament would expire in October, 1916, and it was felt by many people, both Conservatives and Liberals, that a general election in war time would be unseemly. No action in this matter was taken before the close of the year, but it was anticipated that when Parliament met in January, 1916, a Bill extending the life of Parliament for twelve months would be brought in, and passed by agreement between the Government and the Opposition. Such a measure would require imperial sanction.

Reference has already been made to the increase of the area under wheat crops. The production of wheat in Canada in 1915 was estimated as 201,597,000 cwt., or no less than 138·3 per cent. more than the production in 1914. There was also a large increase in the production of oats. These figures give some idea of the efforts made in Canada to counteract the ill-effects upon the prices of corn caused by the closing of the Dardanelles.

During the year there were some important developments in provincial politics, of which perhaps the most interesting was the movement in favour of woman suffrage. In August there was a general election in Manitoba, and the Liberal party under the leadership of Mr. Norris was returned to power by a large majority. The Liberals in Manitoba made woman suffrage one of the prominent planks in their programme. It may be mentioned that this general election provided one of the most sensational electoral victories ever recorded. Of the forty-nine members elected to the legislature only five were Conservatives. The Premiers of Saskatchewan and Alberta also declared themselves in favour of extending the franchise to women. The movement had made less progress in the other provinces, and women were of course ineligible to enjoy the franchise for the Federal Parliament.

The Western Provinces also made moves in the direction of prohibiting the sale of alcohol. The Saskatchewan Government passed a measure abolishing all the hotel bars in the province, but providing for the taking of a referendum on the question after the end of the war. A number of Government-owned dispensaries were established in place of the suppressed bars. In Alberta a referendum was held on July 21 on the question of total prohibition and the result was overwhelmingly in favour of that reform, which is therefore to come into effect, as arranged, in July, 1916. The Government of Ontario passed a measure restricting the hours for the sale of liquor. The new Norris Government in Manitoba stated that a referendum on total prohibition would be held in 1916. Thus the enthusiasm for temperance was growing rapidly in many parts of Canada.

In the autumn the Dominion Government announced that subscriptions would be invited to a Canadian war-loan of 10,000,000*l.* The loan was issued in the form of five per cent. bonds at the price of 97½ and was to be repayable in ten years. On December 3 Mr. White, the Minister of Finance, announced that the amount had been subscribed twice over, and the loan was therefore raised to 20,000,000*l.* This was the first internal loan ever raised in Canada.

III. NEWFOUNDLAND.

This, the smallest of the British colonies enjoying responsible government, made efforts in support of the war which were considerable in proportion to the country's size and population. Before the war, Newfoundland possessed no military force of any kind, but by the end of 1915 she had raised a military contingent of 2,000 men. A branch of the Naval Reserve existed in the colony before the war, and the strength of this very efficient force was brought up to 1,200, that is, double its pre-war maximum.

In November a plebiscite was held on the question of total prohibition and the result was in favour of that policy. The importation, manufacture, and sale of intoxicating liquors will thus be forbidden in the colony and its dependencies on January 1, 1917.

The cod-fishing on the coast of Labrador was not quite so successful as in 1914, fewer fishes being caught, but on the other hand higher prices were to be obtained, and the total value of the catch was therefore in excess of that of the previous year.

IV. MEXICO.

At the beginning of 1915 Mexico had temporarily ceased to be a State ; it was a territory torn and ravaged by the armies of rival political factions, whose leaders were little better than bandits. The two leaders of the so-called Constitutionalist party, Generals Carranza and Villa, had succeeded before the end of 1914 in driving out President Huerta, and Huerta's successor Señor Carbajal, but they had then fallen out among themselves, and the opening of the year found Carranza controlling Vera Cruz, and General Zapata, temporarily in league with Villa, in occupation of Mexico city. For this deplorable state of anarchy, public opinion in Great Britain was inclined to blame the President of the United States, as it was argued that if President Wilson had not refused to recognise Huerta, the latter would have been able to re-establish some kind of order in the country.

Moreover, General Carranza himself was in no sense whatever the ruler of the country. On February 8 Sir J. D. Rees asked the Foreign Secretary in the British House of Commons whether

any leader in Mexico, and if so which, was recognised by the United States Government as President; and whether the British Government recognised the same leader, or any leader, as President. The Hon. Neil Primrose, replying for Sir Edward Grey, said that the answers to these questions were in the negative. This incident shows the extraordinary condition to which the country had been reduced.

In January a so-called "convention" sat in Mexico city, and after declaring itself the supreme power in the country, nominated a certain General R. Gonzales Garza as Provisional President of Mexico. General Garza was a friend of Villa, and was on good terms with General Zapata, but of course his authority was not recognised by General Carranza, and the adherents of the latter captured the capital on January 28; they were, however, subsequently driven out again.

The strife continued for months with alternating successes to the different parties, and intense suffering to the civil population. One of the most serious battles was that fought at Huisachito on April 12, and on that occasion General Carranza's troops severely defeated Villa's army. It was reported that the victorious Carranzistas slaughtered all the wounded on the battlefield and "executed" in cold blood all the prisoners that they captured.

Meanwhile, foreign residents in the country found themselves in a parlous state, with no security for their property and little for their lives. On June 2 President Wilson issued a proclamation dealing with the state of affairs in Mexico, and warning the factionist leaders that the United States would be compelled to intervene if no improvement took place. The American President stated that the people of the United States had instinctively sympathised with the constitutionalist cause, and were therefore the more regretful at seeing the Constitutionalist leaders quarrel amongst themselves in the hour of their triumph over Huerta. He (President Wilson) adjured the leaders to meet together in Mexico city and establish a government with which the Great Powers of the world would be able to deal.

This admonition from President Wilson produced some passing talk of an armistice between the factions, but at the end of June fighting broke out again. In July the advantage rested with General Carranza's armies, and the impression grew that his was the strongest party in the country. On July 11, General Gonzales, Carranza's chief lieutenant, captured Mexico city, and by the beginning of August he had thoroughly established his authority in and around the capital.

Meanwhile, that discredited individual General Huerta appeared at El Paso, in Texas, on June 27, with the evident intention of fomenting a new movement in Mexico. The American authorities immediately arrested him, however, on the charge of "conspiring to incite revolution in Mexico"; and although he

was subsequently allowed out on bail, he found himself effectually prevented from instituting any new faction in his troubled country.

President Wilson's proclamation not having achieved the desired effect, that scrupulous statesman adopted another plan, which was fortunately destined to be more successful. The President issued an invitation to the leading countries of Latin America to enter into a conference on Mexican affairs, and to carry out a joint peaceful intervention with a view to the re-establishment of law and order. This invitation was issued on August 3, and the countries asked to attend the conference were Brazil, Argentina, Chili, Uruguay, Bolivia, and Guatemala. All these Republics agreed to the proposal. At first General Carranza professed to be opposed to the discussion of Mexican affairs with any foreign nations, whilst General Villa, having been defeated in the field and therefore doubtless thinking that his fortunes might be mended by outside influences, was much more amenable to the wishes of the conference. The foreign diplomats evidently realised, however, not only that Carranza was in a better position to establish order than Villa, but that he was the less blood-stained character of the two, and hence after much discussion the conference decided unanimously on October 9 to recognise General Carranza as the "chief of the executive of the *de facto* government of Mexico." It was also announced that several of the minor American Republics were prepared to follow the lead of the conference. The United States Government also took steps indirectly to assist Carranza, by forbidding the exportation of arms to any party in Mexico, except that of the now recognised *de facto* President.

Thus by the end of October, a central Administration was at last re-established in Mexico city, although that Government by no means controlled the whole country as yet. As the arming of the Government forces improved, the pacification of the country became more and more practicable. It was announced that no general election would be held until the whole country had been brought under the rule of the Mexican Government, although in the meantime municipal elections would be held, and after that arrangements would be made, with the assistance of the legally elected municipal authorities, for holding elections for governors of States. On November 6 General Carranza issued a decree stating that henceforth the railways would once more be placed under civil management, the military control of the lines no longer being necessary. The decree would not become effective, however, for one month.

The European Powers followed the lead of the American Government in recognising General Carranza's Administration, and before the end of the year official notifications had been issued by Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy, Spain, and other

countries. Mr. H. P. Fletcher was appointed American Minister at Mexico.

The year ended with an announcement from General Villa that he proposed to go into retirement abroad, but how much credence could be placed in the announcement it was impossible to say.

Under the circumstances existing, there was of course no National Budget in Mexico in 1915.

Señor Porfirio Diaz, the famous ex-President of Mexico, died in Paris on July 2, at the age of eighty-four. It must have been a cause of deep grief to this great man to see the good work that he had accomplished for his country being undone by the rival factions and bandits then thriving in Mexico.

V. GUATEMALA.

During the autumn Señor Cabrera was re-elected President of this Republic for another term of office, the elections being carried out in a most orderly manner. With the object of restricting the immigration of coloured races, a regulation was made that coloured people should not be allowed to land in the Republic unless they deposited \$50 per head.

VI. PANAMA.

Certain statistics were published concerning the traffic passing through the Panama Canal. The waterway was opened in August, 1914, and during the first ten and a half months—till the end of June—1,088 vessels passed through, and of these 471 were American and 464 were British.

VII. THE WEST INDIES AND THE GUIANAS.

News from these regions was scarce during 1915, but a considerable number of men from the British West Indian Islands came over to England to enlist in the Army. There was a revolution in Haiti in July, the new President being Mr. Dartiguenave. In British Guiana affairs were stagnant, and no further efforts appear to have been made to investigate the recent discoveries of gold in the wilds of that colony.

VIII. BRAZIL.

The largest South American Republic suffered financially by the outbreak of war in Europe, but by the end of 1915 the economic state of the country had improved again to some extent. Thus in the Budget for the year 1915 the revenue reached the sum of 33,729,255*l.*, which was over 6,000,000*l.* in excess of the revenue for the previous year. On the other side of the account, the national expenditure was much reduced and amounted to only 33,155,040*l.*, thus leaving a small surplus, which was quite an unusual state of affairs for Brazil.

In March the Immigration Department published statistics showing that the number of immigrants entering the country in 1914 was 33,913, the majority of these being Spaniards, and the number of Italians also being large. In Brazil, as in Argentina, there was a large Italian community, and when Italy entered the war against Austria-Hungary not only did Italian immigration cease but many Italian subjects in Brazil were called up for military service, with the result that the labour market in that country was quite seriously depleted. It was estimated that fully 50,000 Italians sailed from San Paulo to serve in the armies of their King.

Congress was opened May 3, and the new President, Dr. Wenceslao Braz (elected in 1914), reviewed the immediate prospects of the country. The recent financial crisis had, he said, been extremely severe, and the effect of the war might be judged by the fact that the imports during the second half of 1914 had been two-thirds less than in the corresponding period of 1913. Since the beginning of the year, however, there had been a marked improvement, and the Customs receipts had recovered. The position of the Bank of Brazil was also of good augury, the cash in hand being 31,224 contos, as compared with 19,241 contos in November, 1914. Dr. Braz expressed confidence in the future prospects of the Republic.

During the spring very important developments took place in the diplomatic relations of Brazil, Argentina, and Chili. At the end of April, Dr. Lauro Muller, Brazilian Minister for Foreign Affairs, paid official visits to Argentina and Chili, and also to Uruguay. The result of these visits was to increase the good feeling animating what came to be known as "the A B C Entente,"—a phrase used in reference to the initial letters of the three leading South American Republics. On May 23 it was announced that the Foreign Ministers of Argentina, Brazil and Chili would sign a treaty, in which those countries would undertake to submit to an international committee any differences which might arise between them, and not to open hostilities until the committee had concluded its labours. Dr. Muller's visit to Uruguay had a different object, its purpose being to ratify an agreement delimiting the boundaries between the two countries.

The estimated revenue for Brazil for 1916 was 32,345,437*l.*, and the estimated expenditure 32,210,549*l.*

IX. ARGENTINA.

The political affairs of this Republic were tranquil throughout the year, and the only international questions in which the country was involved were the highly beneficial arbitration agreements with Brazil and Chili (see Brazil), and the general effort among the American Republics to restore order in Mexico.

The country was severely affected by the war, the deficit on

the 1914 Budget being nearly 8,000,000*l*. It was anticipated that the revenue for 1915 would show a large increase, and it was estimated at 30,318,043*l*., the estimated expenditure being, however, 34,327,081*l*., so that another deficit was expected.

In Argentina, as in Brazil, the labour market was affected by the withdrawal of numerous Italian reservists at the end of May.

Congress opened its session on May 10, and in his message to the Parliament the President, Dr. Victorino de la Plaza, spoke hopefully of the country's prospects. He pointed out that the trade returns for the first quarter of 1915 were much better than those for the last quarter of 1914.

Argentina benefited from the great demand in Europe for all farm products. The number of domestic animals in the country at the end of 1914 was as follows: Horned cattle, 29,500,000; horses, 9,700,000; mules, 580,000; asses, 340,000; sheep, 80,000,000; goats, 4,520,000; swine, 3,050,000. These figures showed only slight increases over the corresponding statistics in the census of 1908.

X. CHILI.

Chili had a slight diplomatic controversy with Great Britain in March, owing to the British cruiser *Glasgow* sinking the German cruiser *Dresden* in Chilian territorial water, off the Juan Fernandez Islands on March 14. On March 26 the Chilian Minister in London sent a note to Sir Edward Grey making complaints relative to this incident. The note began by narrating the events as they had been reported to the Chilian Government. It was stated that the German cruiser arrived off the Island of Mas-a-Tierra, one of the Juan Fernandez Islands on March 9, and cast anchor 500 meters from the shore. The German commander asked to be allowed to remain for eight days in order to repair his engines, but this was refused and he was told that unless the cruiser departed within twenty-four hours she would be interned. The cruiser did not leave, and the commander was therefore informed that he had incurred the said penalty. On March 14 a British squadron, consisting of the *Glasgow*, *Kent* and *Orana* arrived and immediately opened fire on the *Dresden*, while she lay at anchor. The German hoisted a flag of truce and protested that he was in neutral waters. The British, however, summoned the German to surrender, and threatened to destroy the ship in the event of non-compliance. The commander of the *Dresden* then blew up his powder magazine, thus sinking the ship. The note proceeded: "The act of hostility committed in Chilian territorial waters by the British naval squadron has painfully surprised my Government." The note then explained that the cruiser had been legally interned, and that the British commander had given the Maritime Governor of Mas-a-Tierra no time in which to explain the situation. The Chilian Government

protested against this serious offence against its sovereign rights, and felt convinced that the British Government would give satisfaction for the act committed by the naval squadron. It should be added that the note explained that the *Dresden* could not have escaped, so long as the British ships were lying off the bay in which she was anchored, and that, therefore, there was no excuse for the British commander's desire to disable the vessel.

Sir Edward Grey replied that the British Government made a full apology to the Chilian Government for the incident, but his note also stated that the evidence was that the German commander had not accepted the decree of internment, and that the *Dresden* was still flying her colours and had her guns trained, and hence the action of the captain of the *Glasgow* was explicable.

As explained in the section dealing with Brazil, Chili was one of the parties to the valuable arbitration treaty concluded in the spring between several South American Republics.

No country in Latin America was more seriously affected by the war than Chili, because this Republic was largely dependent on the revenue and profits to be obtained from the export of nitrate, and for nearly twelve months after the outbreak of the European War this export greatly decreased. Towards the end of the year, however, nitrate was bought in Europe in large quantities for the purpose of making ammunition.

In February a treaty was signed between Chili and China, establishing formal friendly relations between the two countries, which would thereafter appoint diplomatic and consular representatives to each other.

In the summer the presidential elections were held, the successful candidate being Señor Don Juan Luis Sanfuentes. In a manifesto to the country, the new President declared that the financial difficulties arising out of the war had been overcome and that a prosperous period might now be expected. In spite of this optimistic declaration, the Budget of 1915 showed a very serious estimated deficit. The revenue was computed at 9,872,165*l.*, and the expenditure at 15,391,752*l.* It was hoped, however, that expenditure would be much curtailed in 1916.

The new President, in accordance with the usual custom, did not actually assume office until December, and the new Cabinet then appointed was composed as follows:—

| | | | | |
|--------------------------|---|---|---|---------------------------|
| Minister of the Interior | - | - | - | Señor D. E. Balmaceda. |
| „ of Foreign Affairs | - | - | - | Señor D. R. Subercaseaux. |
| „ of Finance | - | - | - | Señor D. R. Santelice. |
| „ of Justice | - | - | - | Señor D. A. O. Luco. |
| „ of War | - | - | - | General Vergara. |
| „ of Industry | - | - | - | Señor D. R. G. Mon. |

XI. URUGUAY.

Uruguay had a peaceful year, and the country was less severely affected economically by the war than some of the other South American Republics. In March a new President, Dr. Feliciano Viera, was elected; and Uruguay was one of the Republics which took part in the joint intervention in Mexican affairs. In the Budget for the financial year 1915-16 the revenue was estimated at 6,195,555*l.* and the expenditure at 6,277,785*l.* The politics of the new President were said to be indistinguishable from those of his predecessor, Señor Batlle.

XII. PARAGUAY.

At the beginning of January there was an outbreak in the capital and an attempt by mutinous soldiers and others to cause a revolution, the President, Señor Schaerer, being taken prisoner by the rebels. The rising was speedily crushed, however, and the President liberated. After this occurrence, there were no more disturbances during the year. In the Budget for 1915 the estimated revenue was 565,000*l.* and the estimated expenditure 562,000*l.*

XIII. PERU.

The year opened in Peru with an unconstitutional President in power, Colonel Benavides having seized the Presidency in 1914 by a military *coup d'état*. (See A.R., 1914, p. 490.) Colonel Benavides proved, however, that he was not a mere self-seeking adventurer, and a legal general election being held on May 25 with only one candidate for the Presidency in the field, namely Dr. Jose Pardo, that gentleman was duly chosen as chief magistrate of the Republic, and the Parliament elected was of the same political colour as the prospective President.

In the ordinary course of events Dr. Pardo would not have entered upon his term of office until September 4, but Colonel Benavides unexpectedly resigned on August 16 and Dr. Pardo took over the government of the country two days later. The new Cabinet then appointed included Señor R. Aguero as Premier, Señor Menendez as Foreign Minister, and Señor Lastres as Minister of Finance. Dr. Pardo had previously been President from 1904 to 1908.

Some of the criminals responsible for the notorious Putumayo atrocities, who had been awaiting trial for three years, escaped from the jail at Iquitos in August, and made their way down the Amazon into Brazil. The escaped prisoners included Armando Normand, who was believed to have been the worst villain of the whole disreputable gang.

At the end of the year no estimates of the 1915 Budget had been published

In November an important amendment to Article 4 of the Peruvian Constitution became law. This article prohibited the public worship of any religion except Roman Catholicism, but the amendment removed this restriction, and was therefore a significant move towards religious tolerance.

XIV. VENEZUELA.

In May General Juan Vicente Gomez was unanimously elected President. In November an official estimate of the population of this Republic on March 31, 1915, was published, the total being given as 2,323,527. No exact figures for the Venezuelan Budgets later than that for the year 1912-13 had been published by the end of 1915, but the estimates for 1915-16 showed that the revenue and expenditure were expected to balance at 1,568,099*l*.

XV. BOLIVIA, COLOMBIA AND ECUADOR.

From these three South American Republics there was little news of any importance during the year. From Bolivia no reliable figures for the 1915 Budget had been published by the end of the year, and the same was true of Colombia, but the revenue and expenditure of Ecuador for 1915 were expected to balance at 2,088,004*l*.

CHAPTER IX.

AUSTRALASIA.

I. THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.

IN Australia there was greater unanimity on the question of the war even than in Canada. The Australians are much more purely British in extraction and sentiment than the Canadians; the Commonwealth, which prides itself upon the fact that it has always been British, has of course no elements in the population corresponding to the French in Canada and the Boers in South Africa, and among recent immigrants the number of persons of foreign birth was not large. In Canada one person in every fifteen was of enemy-extraction, whereas in Australia the Germans constituted less than one-half of one per cent. of the total population. Moreover, although socialism was enormously more powerful in Australia than in the North American Dominion, it was not socialism of the extreme pacifist type referred to in the article on Canada. Hence it came about that Imperialist sentiments were well-nigh universal throughout the Commonwealth, and the warlike determination of the Australians only hardened when they heard of the terrible casualties suffered by the overseas contingents in the landing and subsequent operations at the Dardanelles.

The Labour Government and the Liberal Opposition were in complete accord on the questions of war policy. It was generally held in the Commonwealth that Australia and the other self-governing Dominions ought to be consulted when the time for peace negotiations approached, and it was widely felt that the German colonies in the Pacific which had been conquered by the Australasian forces ought not to be given back to their former owners at the end of the war. Yet Australian politicians did not favour quite such a rigid scheme of Imperialism as that advocated by Canadian Conservatives. Australia was proud of the fact that unlike Canada she possessed a Navy, and the successes of the little fleet, albeit they were necessarily on a very small scale, tended to foster and encourage the ideals of local autonomy, which found expression when the Australian Navy was created. The approved Naval policy of Australia resembled that of the Canadian Liberals rather than that of the Canadian Conservatives.

The harvest of 1914 had been the worst known for many years, owing to the serious drought which had occurred, and this caused a certain stringency in the financial position and prevented Australian farmers from reaping the benefits of the high prices to be obtained for wheat and other produce in the markets of the outside world. At the beginning of the year the country had not enough grain even for its own internal use, and Acts had to be passed (some of them before the end of 1914) in several of the State legislatures to regulate the prices of wheat and other necessary commodities. The prices fixed by the different Parliaments were, however, not identical. Thus the price of wheat in New South Wales (4s. 2d. per bushel) was lower than the prices ruling in Victoria. This led, of course, to the exportation of wheat from New South Wales to the neighbouring State, and in order to prevent such exportation the New South Wales Government seized all the wheat within its jurisdiction on December 24, 1914. The right of the subordinate legislature to do this was, however, immediately disputed. It is a fundamental principle of the Australian Constitution that free trade must reign between all the States. The case was brought before the Inter-State Commission which ruled that the New South Wales "Wheat Acquisition Act" of December, 1914, was *ultra vires*. This matter attracted much attention throughout the Commonwealth.

In April a great sensation was caused by charges of looting levelled against the Australian officers of the New Guinea Expeditionary Force by Mr. Anstey, a Labour member of the House of Representatives. Mr. Anstey declared that looting and robbery were carried out at Raboul on a large scale both by officers and men, and that "ship after ship had left Raboul, loaded with loot which was the property of officers." He went on to state that men in the ranks had been sentenced to im-

prisonment for looting by court-martials which were composed of officers who were themselves guilty of the very same offence. An inquiry into these charges was instituted, and it subsequently transpired that the incidents had been exaggerated.

In Australia, as in other parts of the British Empire, the Government found themselves face to face with very serious financial difficulties caused by the war. The ordinary federal expenditure for the year ending June 30,¹ 1915, was 16,891,228*l.*, this sum including over 2,000,000*l.* capital expenditure on new works, but the expenditure on the expeditionary forces up to the same date amounted to no less than 14,792,960*l.*, and the deficit on the year was thus 15,636,252*l.*, for there was a small deficit on the ordinary Budget.

Grave though this deficit was for such a small nation, the outlook for the financial year 1915-16 was much worse. The Prime Minister, Mr. Fisher, gave the following estimates for the second year:—

| | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| Ordinary expenditure | - | - | - | - | - | - | £17,676,025 |
| Payments to States | - | - | - | - | - | - | 6,290,000 |
| Estimated cost of forces | - | - | - | - | - | - | 45,749,450 |
| War pensions | - | - | - | - | - | - | 500,000 |
| New defence works | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2,051,679 |
| Other new works | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1,775,950 |
| | | | | | | | <hr/> £74,043,104 |

As against this enormous expenditure, the estimated revenue from ordinary sources was only 23,540,000*l.*, so that the deficit to be expected was over 50,000,000*l.* Of course this problem was no different from that which arose in all the belligerent countries, for none of the nations at war could contemplate paying the expenses out of revenue. On the other side of the account must be placed the loans amounting to 24,500,000*l.* from the British Government, and subsequently to the passing of this 1915-16 Budget a Commonwealth loan of 20,000,000*l.* was authorised. This local loan bore interest at 4½ per cent. and was issued at par. It was to be free of taxation by the Commonwealth, and the terms were therefore very favourable to the investor. The Commonwealth Government also decided to levy a very heavy income tax, ranging up to 5*s.* in the pound, but with exemption for everybody with an income below 3*l.* per week.

At the end of October it was announced that Mr. Fisher would resign his position as Prime Minister in order to take up the duties of Australian High Commissioner in London. The position of High Commissioner was for obvious reasons of the very greatest importance during the war, when the London Government would desire and need to consult with leading statesmen from the overseas dominions, more particularly in the event of peace negotiations being mooted. Mr. Andrew Fisher was fifty-three years of age, and had twice been Prime Minister of Australia. He was

¹ In Australia the financial year ends on June 30, not on March 31.

succeeded by Mr. W. M. Hughes, the Attorney-General in the Federal Cabinet.

In the summer a War Census Bill was passed through the Federal Parliament, in order to enable the Government to ascertain the resources of Australia, not only in potential soldiers, but in material wealth. This Act was therefore of a more comprehensive character than the National Registration Acts of Great Britain and New Zealand.

During November and December a vigorous recruiting campaign was carried on all over Australia, with the active support of the new Prime Minister and his Government, and also of the Opposition leaders. It was alleged by enthusiasts that there were 650,000 men in the Continent available for overseas military service. The municipalities all over the country acted as recruiting committees. The recruiting campaign was opposed, however, by some of the extreme Socialists, and the Trades Council at Melbourne went so far as to advise trades unionists to ignore the recruiting circulars sent out by the local committees. The Prime Minister, in reply to this recalcitrancy, said that it was obligatory on everybody to answer the questions asked in the circulars and that the Government possessed powers to enforce this, and would not hesitate to use them. The great majority of the Labour (Ministerial) party were entirely in favour of the recruiting schemes, and it was hoped that by means of the efforts being made during the winter the number of trained men provided by Australia would even rival the contributions made by Canada.¹

In the autumn a movement was set on foot advocating conscription for foreign service, and the proposal had the support of many influential men, including the Premier of South Australia, Mr. C. Vaughan. Up till the end of the year, however, there was no indication that such a drastic idea would find favour with the Federal Parliament.

A Bill was passed through Parliament instituting the principle of compulsory voting at elections, every elector being required by law to go to poll, unless he could show adequate excuse for failing to do so. Failure to comply with the new law was made punishable by fine.

In State politics there was little to record during this year. A general election was held in Queensland in May, which resulted in a sensational rout of the Liberal Government. The Labour party thus came into office, and Mr. Thomas Joseph Ryan was the new State Premier, and Mr. E. G. Theodore the new Treasurer.

In Papua the Colony known as German New Guinea was administered by the Australian Commonwealth.

¹Canada had enlisted 200,000 men, a number considerably in excess of the Australian volunteers.

One of the most important of the problems of internal politics discussed during the year was a question which concerned neither the federal Parliament exclusively nor only the State legislatures, but the inter-relations of the national and local diets. As is well known to all students of constitutional law, the powers possessed by the subordinate legislatures of Australia are greater than those enjoyed by the corresponding bodies in Canada, and very much greater than the powers of the provincial councils in South Africa. Now the Labour party desired to aggrandise the Commonwealth Parliament at the expense of the State diets. And since the Federal Government found themselves in some respects hampered in their work of prosecuting the war by the meagre nature of their constitutional powers, they became the more anxious to press forward their scheme of reform. Hence in Australia there was nothing in the nature of a truce in party and internal politics. The formation of a coalition Government, such as became realities in Great Britain and New Zealand, was not even suggested by responsible statesmen, and there was no such lull in party strife as that seen in Canada.

The Federal Government therefore proceeded to take the steps necessary for holding the referendum on their proposed amendments to the Commonwealth Constitution, and they remained for months quite undeterred by the protests of those Australians who thought it a mistake to continue domestic controversies in the midst of a great war. The purpose of the proposed amendments was greatly to enhance the power of the Federal Parliament over commerce and trade, and to give that body the power to fix prices. The referendum was arranged to take place in November, and printed arguments for and against the amendments were sent out to the electors. Yet at the last moment the Prime Minister abandoned his plan of taking a plebiscite. On November 4 Mr. Hughes announced in the House of Representatives that secret negotiations had been taking place between the Federal and the State Governments and that a compromise had been reached. Mr. Cook, the leader of the Federal Opposition, had not been a party to the negotiations, but the State Governments, acting on the advice of Sir Alexander Peacock, the Liberal Prime Minister of Victoria, had expressed their willingness to introduce legislation in their respective Parliaments, giving the Commonwealth the powers (subject to certain qualifications) asked for in the referendum, for the period of the war and one year after the conclusion of peace. After that time, the powers in question would automatically revert to the State Parliaments. By means of this scheme the Federal Government would be freed from the restrictions which militated against a vigorous organisation of Australia's resources for the prosecution of the war, but at the same time those who objected to the Constitutional amendments as such, and those who feared

the Socialistic and purely party projects which would be forwarded by those amendments, were able to support the new plan without sacrificing their principles. Mr. Hughes passed the necessary legislation through the Federal Parliament in November. Yet the compromise failed. Before the end of the year it was reported that either the Upper or the Lower House of five of the six State diets had rejected the proposal, which therefore of course could not be realised. If the subordinate Parliaments had ratified the scheme, the Federal Government would of course have postponed the referendum until after the war, but in the circumstances which finally arose it was open to Mr. Hughes to call a poll of the people as early as he pleased in the new year.

When Mr. Fisher left for England a bye-election occurred in his constituency, Wide Bay, in Queensland. At the general election of 1914 the ex-Premier had been elected by a majority of over 5,000, but the seat was now captured by a Liberal, Mr. Corser, by the narrow margin of 89 votes.

When Australians learnt in December that their valiant troops had been withdrawn from Gallipoli, they received the news with a feeling of relief, for it had come to be realised that the attempt to force the Dardanelles was beset with insuperable difficulties. Mr. Hughes expressed the feeling of the people at large when he said: "I feel I speak for the people of Australia when I say that the news of the evacuation with insignificant loss has been received in a spirit of devout gladness, chastened by keen regret that the withdrawal was found to be imperative. This is no time for carping criticism. Australia is in this war to the end, and that end must, and shall, be victory, final and complete. The evacuation of Anzac serves but as a spur to our resolute purpose."

II. NEW ZEALAND.

The beginning of the year found New Zealanders contemplating the singularly indecisive result of the general election held in December, 1914. Mr. Massey, the Prime Minister and leader of the so-called "Reform party," had come out of the contest with the narrow majority of two, which would be reduced to one on the election of a Speaker from among the Ministerialists. The total number of Ministerialists in the new House was forty-one, whilst there were thirty-two Liberals, and seven Socialists, these two Opposition parties having co-operated during the elections. Several election petitions were lodged in January, but in the result these did not affect the figures mentioned.¹ The collaboration of the Liberals and Socialists in the elections was due only to their common enmity to the Government, and not to

¹ The statement in A.R., 1914, p. 503, that Government and Opposition were equal in strength is erroneous. A re-count in Wellington East gave that seat to a Reform candidate instead of to a Socialist.

any real affinity between their political programmes. The opinions of the Reform and Liberal parties were not very dissimilar, whereas the principles of both were far removed from those of the Socialists, who were more extreme than the Australian Labour party.

Throughout the year New Zealand sent forth a steady stream of soldiers to fight for the Empire. Reinforcements followed the original expeditionary contingent of 10,000 men, and by the end of April 17,000 men had been raised for foreign service, and regiments of older men were trained for home defence. All eyes were on the Gallipoli Peninsula and the casualties up till June numbered 2,400 officers and men.

New Zealand, like most other countries, suffered from the serious rises in the prices of certain necessities of life, particularly corn. Wheat had to be imported from Canada and elsewhere, but in spite of this the price of a four-pound loaf of bread rose in the first six months of the war from 7*d.* to 10*d.*

Parliament met on June 24, and was immediately faced with difficult problems, of which not the least important was the question of war finance. A Bill for a loan of 10,000,000*l.* was passed without opposition. The Minister of Finance, Colonel J. Allen, said that the expenditure on the war up to the end of March had been 2,152,000*l.*, but that since then the rate of expenditure had increased and now exceeded 300,000*l.* per month. Owing to the equilibrium between the parties, and also to the example set by the Mother Country, the question of forming a Coalition Ministry soon came to the front. A Coalition Cabinet, or as it was called in New Zealand a "National Ministry," was not an unnatural development under war conditions, because as already stated the Reform and Liberal parties held by no means incompatible principles; but owing to the rivalry of the politicians some time elapsed before such a Ministry was actually formed. On August 4, however, the anniversary of the British declaration of war, a National Ministry was constituted, its members being drawn from the two large political parties, but not from the Socialists. Mr. Massey remained Prime Minister and Sir Joseph Ward, the leader of the Liberals, became Minister of Finance. The Cabinet thus formed was made up as follows :—

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|---|--|
| Premier and Minister of Labour | - | - | - | Mr. F. W. Massey. |
| Finance and Postal Department | - | - | - | Sir J. Ward. |
| Defence | - | - | - | Colonel J. Allen. |
| Railways | - | - | - | Mr. W. H. Herries. |
| Public Works | - | - | - | Mr. W. Fraser. |
| Attorney-General | - | - | - | Mr. A. L. Herdman. |
| Justice and Marine | - | - | - | Mr. R. McNab. |
| Interior | - | - | - | Mr. G. W. Russell. |
| Customs and Munitions | - | - | - | Mr. A. M. Myers. |
| Agriculture and Mines | - | - | - | Mr. W. D. S. Macdonald. |
| Education | - | - | - | Mr. J. A. Hanan. |
| Minister without portfolio | - | - | - | Sir F. Bell (Leader of Council). |
| " | " | " | " | Dr. Pomare (Member of Executive Council, representing Aborigines). |

The Socialists were offered a place in the Cabinet, but refused to accept it.

The National Cabinet was a much stronger Administration than the party Ministry which it displaced, and proceeded at once to bring in a National Registration Bill, somewhat resembling the Registration Bill which was passed at about the same time by the British Parliament. The Bill provided for the registration of every male resident in New Zealand between the ages of seventeen and sixty, and inquired of all men between nineteen and forty-five whether they are willing to serve in an expeditionary force, or in any other capacity, and if not, why not. The Bill originally provided for compulsory medical examination, but this clause was eliminated by the legislature, after which, with certain modifications, the Bill was passed through Parliament. The Registration was carried out in the autumn and the results were made known in December. More than 109,000 men of military age expressed their willingness to join an Expeditionary Force, if they should be required. Of the single men and "widowers without dependants," only 8,390 stated that they were unwilling to volunteer, and 319 of these explained that they had conscientious objections to fighting.

In the autumn, although over 20,000 recruits had already been obtained, the recruiting campaign proceeded more vigorously than ever, and Colonel Allen even stated that he found public opinion rapidly growing in favour of conscription. In November the Government announced that in future they would aim at securing 2,500 recruits a month, instead of 900 a month as heretofore; it was, they said, essential that New Zealand should send out 30,000 more soldiers during 1916.

Sir Joseph Ward, the Finance Minister in the National Ministry, did not introduce his Budget until the autumn. He then found it necessary to impose additional taxation to the amount of 2,032,000*l.* The largest contributions towards this increase were: Land and income-tax, 619,600*l.*; Postal and Telegraphic charges, 380,000*l.*; and Railway charges, 360,000*l.* The maximum income-tax was raised from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.*, this maximum being reached at 5,000*l.* The minimum income-tax was raised from 6*d.* to 8*d.* The Revenue for the year 1914-15 was 12,443,525*l.*, which yielded a surplus of 72,142*l.* for that year.

PART II.
CHRONICLE OF EVENTS
IN 1915.

JANUARY.

1. The list of New Year honours included two new Knights of the Garter, Lords Derby and Chesterfield; and one new Knight of the Thistle, Lord Lovat. The Earl of Aberdeen received a marquessate, and Viscount St. Aldwyn an earldom. There were five new Privy Councillors, and three new baronets. The knighthoods included Mr. Henry Newbolt and Mr. Frank Dyson, the Astronomer Royal. The list, which contained scarcely any political honours, was characterised by the institution of a new decoration, called "The Military Cross."

— The battleship *Formidable* was sunk by a torpedo in the Channel, south of Lyme Regis, with a loss of 500-600 men.

— A railway collision at Ilford, on the Great Eastern Railway, resulted in nine persons being killed, and about thirty wounded.

3. Day of Intercession for the successful issue of the war.

4. Reopening of the Stock Exchange.

— Announcement of Lord Wimborne's appointment as Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland.

— Peace attained in the cotton trade by restoration of the Brooklands Agreement.

— Thames valley flooded.

5. Salisbury Cathedral flooded.

6. Re-assembling of the House of Lords.

7. The British steamer *Elfrida* struck a mine and foundered off Scarborough.

8. Announcement of the impending resignation of Mr. Ellis Griffith from the Under-Secretaryship for the Home Department.

— Announcement of the appointment of a commission under the Chairmanship of Sir Ernest Hatch, Bart., to put into execution the

recommendations for providing occupation for Belgian refugees contained in the report of the Departmental Committee.

9. Announcement that Lord Methuen had been temporarily appointed Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Malta.

— The King and Queen visited the Indian wounded at Brighton.

10. Sixteen German aeroplanes were seen over the English Channel, but were prevented by the weather from making a raid.

11. P & O steamship *Nile* sank in the inland Sea of Japan.

12. Opening of the French Chambers.

— Announcement that the University Boat Race was to be abandoned this year.

— Miss Gladys Cooper awarded 1,200*l.* damages for libel from the *London Mail*.

13. Announcement of the appointment of Sir Charles Nicholson, M.P., as Chairman of the Board of Control of Army Canteen Contracts.

— Violent earthquake in Italy, causing much damage in Rome and destroying the towns of Avezzano and Sora.

— The King held an investiture at Buckingham Palace at which he decorated various members of the expeditionary force with the V.C. and D.S.O.

14. The flood of the Upper Thames receding, though a large extent of adjoining land was still submerged.

15. The Greek Minister in London, addressing a meeting, said that Greece was absolutely devoted to the cause of England at the present crisis.

16. Queen Alexandra paid a visit to the Special Hospital for Officers at Palace Street, Kensington.

— The Government patrol boat *Ghar* was sunk off Deal with the loss of its crew of twelve or fourteen men.

17. A mine explosion at Minnie pit, Halmerend, Staffordshire, caused the death of nine men.

— The *Penarth* was wrecked off Sherringham and twenty-two of her crew were lost.

18. Lord Roberts left unsettled property valued at 77,304*l.* gross.

— The *George Royal* wrecked off Sherringham, with loss of most of her crew.

19. During the night German airships L3 and L4 dropped bombs on Yarmouth and King's Lynn which caused four deaths and some damage to property.

— Decision of the Court of Appeal that an alien enemy may not sue during the continuance of war; but that he may be sued and defend himself in proceedings against him.

20. Conviction of a shipowner on a charge of trading with the enemy.

— Prohibition of the export of copra.

21. Announcement that Sir Henry Babington Smith, K.C.B., had been appointed Chairman of the Royal Commission on the Civil Service in place of Lord Macdonnell who had resigned.

22. German air-raid over Dunkirk.

— Announcement that Mr. Justice Banks had been appointed a Lord Justice of Appeal in succession to the late Lord Justice Kennedy.

— The steamer *Durward* torpedoed by a German submarine in the North Sea.

— Heavy fall of snow in London.

23. Announcement that Sir Henry Miers had tendered his resignation as Principal of the University of London and had been offered the post of Vice-Chancellor of Manchester University.

— Announcement that Mr. John Halkett had been appointed a Metropolitan Police Magistrate.

— Announcement that Sir Frederick Low, K.C., M.P., had been appointed a Judge of the High Court.

— Announcement that a Committee had been appointed under the Chairmanship of Lord Balfour of Burleigh to consider the question of the export of rubber.

— M. Millerand, the French Minister of War, was received by the King and afterwards called at the War Office, where he expressed much satisfaction with the appearance of the troops being trained at Aldershot.

— A railway accident occurred on the London, Brighton and South Coast Railway, resulting in the death of one man.

24. Naval battle in the North Sea resulted in the sinking of the German armoured cruiser *Blücher*.

24-25. British naval raid in Alexandretta Bay.

25. Announcement that Mr. J. W. Gulland, M.P., had been appointed Chief Whip for the Liberal party. It was understood that the office had been refused both by Mr. Whitley and Colonel Seely.

26. Announcement that the armed merchant vessel H.M.S. *Viknor* had been lost with all officers and men off the north coast of Ireland, possibly having struck a mine.

— Celebration of Australia Day in London.

27. Mr. Oswald Partington was adopted as Liberal candidate for Shipley.

28. Announcement of a British loan of 5,000,000*l.* to Roumania.

30. The German submarine U 21 sunk three British merchant vessels in the Irish Sea.

— The steamship *Tokomaru* was torpedoed by a German submarine in the Channel about seven miles from Havre.

FEBRUARY.

1. Mr. Masterman resigned the office of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. Since his appointment twelve months previously he had been unable to find a seat in the House of Commons.

— Strike of the employees of the National Steam Car Company.

2. The King and Queen attended a special performance of "The School for Scandal" at Covent Garden Theatre in aid of the Actors' Benevolent Fund.

2. A German submarine attempted unsuccessfully to torpedo the British hospital ship *Asturias* in the Channel.

— Vice-Admiral Sir F. C. Doveton Sturdee arrived at Plymouth from the Falkland Islands.

— At a meeting of the London County Council the London and District Electricity Supply Bill failed to obtain the requisite two-thirds majority and was therefore rejected.

— Re-assembling of the House of Commons.

3. Sir Herbert Roberts was elected Chairman of the Welsh Liberal members in succession to Sir David Brynmor Jones.

— Judgment was delivered in favour of the petitioner, C. E. E. Slingsby, in a legitimacy suit. The allegation of the respondents was that the wife of the present holder of the Yorkshire estates had passed off a child as her own which really belonged to another woman.

— Revocation of the subsection of the Currency and Banknotes Act, 1914, whereby postal orders were made legal tender.

4. Announcement that Mr. E. S. Montagu, M.P., had been appointed Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster; that Mr. Cecil Beck, M.P., and Mr. Walter Rea, M.P., had been appointed Lord Commissioners of the Treasury, and that Mr. F. D. Acland, M.P., had been appointed Financial Secretary to the Treasury.

— Germany declared a blockade of Great Britain from February 18.

— It was stated on the authority of the *Berliner Tageblatt* that the sentence on Private Lonsdale, an English prisoner in Germany, who had been condemned to death on a charge of striking a guard, had been commuted to twenty years' imprisonment.

5. It was announced that Mr. Cecil Harmsworth, M.P., had been appointed Parliamentary Under-Secretary to the Home Office, and that Mr. Neil Primrose, M.P., had been appointed Parliamentary Under-Secretary to the Foreign Office.

6. Mr. Hilton Young was returned unopposed as Liberal member for Norwich, and Mr. T. J. Williams as Liberal member for the Swansea district.

8. The King received M. Delcassé, the French Foreign Minister, at Buckingham Palace.

9. The King received M. Bark, the Russian Minister of Finance, at Buckingham Palace.

— Arrival of the *Wilhelmina* at Falmouth.

— The dispute in the West Yorkshire coalfield was settled by the concession of the men's demands during the continuance of the war.

— An *Entente Matinée* at His Majesty's Theatre produced £1,150l. net, for the benefit of the *Fraternelle des Artistes*.

10. The Upper House of Convocation of Canterbury decided that the proposed changes in the Book of Common Prayer should be issued as a separate volume for optional use during a period to be determined.

— It was reported that in the course of excavations at Cyrene a bronze

statue of Alexander the Great had been discovered which was believed to be the work of the Greek sculptor Lysippus.

10. Closing of the Crystal Palace.

— Mr. J. P. Morgan's Chinese porcelain collection was sold to Messrs. Duveen Bros. for 800,000*l*.

11. Father Ledochovski, a German Pole, was elected General of the Jesuits.

12. Announcement that a battalion of Welsh Guards was to be raised by Lieutenant-Colonel Murray-Threipland.

— Admiral Sir John Jellicoe, K.C.B., K.C.V.O., promoted to be G.C.B.

— Mr. John Alfred Arnesby Brown, A.R.A., and Mr. Joseph Farquharson, A.R.A., were elected Royal Academicians.

— Removal of the prohibition of the export of cocoa-beans.

13. The steamer *Wavelet* struck a mine off the Kentish Knock, and eleven of the crew were drowned.

— The Conference of Railway Workers and Managers reached an agreement under which railway workers were to receive increased wages.

14. A meeting of about forty well-known Socialists, representing England, France, Belgium and Russia, passed resolutions bearing on the war.

15. In the breach of promise case brought by Miss Minnie Quirk against the executor of the late Arthur William Thomas, Mr. Justice Lush decided that a pecuniary loss suffered by a woman through giving up an employment in contemplation of marriage could not be properly treated as special damage flowing from the breach of promise to marry.

— Reduction in the prices of wheat and flour.

16. Announcement that forty naval airplanes and seaplanes had bombarded Ostend, Middelkerke, Ghisteltes and Zeebrugge.

17. Mr. Herbert Samuel, M.P., appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of the Right Hon. Sir George H. Murray, G.C.B., to consider the question of employment for soldiers and sailors disabled in the present war.

— General Ricciotti Garibaldi left England at the conclusion of his visit, for the purpose of obtaining help in raising a body of men to fight for the Allies.

— A German Zeppelin (L 3) came down on Fanø Island in Denmark and was burnt. The crew was interned. Another Zeppelin (L 4) was lost on the same day.

— Mr. H. A. L. Fisher was elected a trustee of the British Museum.

18. Commencement of the German blockade of British waters.

— Publication of the British reply to the United States on the subject of the seizures and detentions of American cargoes destined for neutral ports.

— Fifteen per cent. was paid to cover the cost of a total loss should peace not be declared on or before March 31, 1916.

— The King and Queen visited the officers and men who had arrived

from Germany in exchange for German prisoners, on account of their unfitness for further service.

19. Miss Marjory Schaw, of Glasgow, bequeathed half a million pounds to charitable institutions in Glasgow.

— The Norwegian tank-ship *Belridge* was sunk by a German submarine near Folkestone. This was the first victim of the German blockade of British waters.

— Further increase in the price of coal. House coal was now quoted in London at from 34s. to 36s. a ton.

20. The Cardiff steamer *Cambank* torpedoed near Anglesey by a German submarine, and the *Downshire* off the Calf of Man. The *Cambank* had a valuable cargo of copper on board.

— The Panama exhibition was opened at San Francisco by President Wilson in Washington. He pressed a button, whereupon the doors of the various exhibitions swung free and mechanical exhibits began to move.

21. A German aeroplane dropped a bomb near Colchester and others at Braintree and Coggeshall.

22. Madame Sarah Bernhardt had her right thigh amputated.

23. The Folkestone-Boulogne passenger boat was unsuccessfully attacked by a German submarine.

— The steamer *Branksome Chine* of Cardiff was torpedoed off Beachy Head. No lives were lost.

— Operation on Miss Ellen Terry for the removal of cataract.

— Heavy fall of snow in London.

24. The French destroyer *Dague* was blown up by a mine in Antivari harbour.

— Appointment of a Committee under the Chairmanship of Sir Richard Redmayne, K.C.B., to inquire into the conditions in the coal-mining industry, with a view to setting free for enlistment as many miners as possible.

25. Announcement of the loss of H.M.S. *Clan McNaughton*, an armed merchant cruiser, with her whole crew.

— Announcement that the Fragonard panels had been sold to Mr. H. C. Frick for 285,000*l*.

— A ballot of the Clyde engineers resulted in the rejection of the employers' offer by 8,926 votes to 829.

26. Appointment of a Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. Vaughan Nash, C.B., to inquire into the causes of the rise in the retail price of coal.

— The trustees of the National Gallery accepted Hoppner's portraits of Master Frederick Van Diest and Miss Louisa Ann Van Diest.

27. The trial of Carrie Davis in Toronto on a charge of shooting her employer on the doorstep of his home ended in a verdict of Not Guilty.

— The Moulin Rouge in Paris was burnt down.

28. The King returned to London from a visit to a portion of the Grand Fleet.

MARCH.

1. St. David's Day. The Welsh Guards mounted guard at Buckingham Palace for the first time.

— Entry of the Allied Fleets into the Dardanelles.

— Announcement that Sir Charles Parsons had presented 5,000*l.* to the Royal Institution.

2. Opening of the Annual Hunters Show at the Agricultural Hall, Islington.

3. Lord Londonderry left unsettled property valued at 500,000*l.*

— The price of flour was reduced to 52*s.* per sack delivered, the first reduction recorded since the outbreak of war.

— The King and Queen and Princess Mary visited the Horse Show.

4. The Mersey coal-heavers' strike ended.

— A life policy for 155,000*l.* with the London Assurance Corporation was sold for 10,150*l.*

— Sir John French was presented by General Delacroix, late Commander-in-Chief of the French Army, with the *Médaille Militaire*, the highest French military honour obtainable.

— The Liverpool liner *Ling Chow* was chased by a German submarine off Land's End.

5. The German submarine U8 was sunk off Dover by destroyers and the officers and men were taken prisoners.

— Messrs. Lyons & Co. were fined 50*l.* with 70*l.* costs for sending bad meat for the troops quartered at the White City.

— One hundred pounds damages were awarded against Lord Leconfield in an action for libel by a resident of Worthing.

7. The s.s. *Bengrove* was sunk off Ilfracombe, probably by a torpedo.

— Lord Kitchener took up his residence at York House, which had been lent to him by the King for the period of the war.

— Severe epidemic of influenza in London.

8. Mr. William Stirling left unsettled personal estate in the United Kingdom valued at 812,366*l.* The duties payable (exclusive of those payable on real and settled property) amounted to 160,000*l.*

9. An order was issued forbidding officers in uniform to visit night clubs.

— Three British steamers sunk by torpedo off Scarborough, Hastings and Liverpool.

10. Announcement that H.M.S. *Ariel* had sunk the German submarine U 12.

— Announcement that the British Army had captured the village of Neuve Chapelle.

— The Atlantic lines reduced their rates for second class to 10*l.* to United States and Canada.

11. The auxiliary cruiser *Bayano* was found to have been sunk, probably by a submarine.

11. The French vessel *Auguste Conseille* was sunk by the German submarine U 29.

— Announcement that Vandyck's "Portrait of a Lady and Child" had been acquired for the National Gallery for 10,000l.

— Mr. William Llewelyn Williams, K.C., M.P., was appointed Recorder of Cardiff.

13. Lady Ida Sitwell was sentenced to three months' imprisonment in the second division on a charge of conspiring to defraud.

14. The *Dresden* was sunk near Juan Fernandez Island by the *Glasgow*, *Orame* and *Kent*. The only German ships still remaining at large were the cruiser *Karlsruhe* and the auxiliary cruisers *Kronprinz Wilhelm* and *Prinz Eitel Friedrich*.

— The British steamship *Atlanta* was torpedoed by a German submarine off Inishturk.

15. *The Times* announced the names of seven British steamers torpedoed since March 10. Between March 4 and 10 four steamers were sunk.

— British steamship *Fingal* was torpedoed off the Northumberland coast.

16. Publication of the Order in Council under which no vessels were allowed to enter or leave any German port.

— One thousand German prisoners captured at Neuve Chapelle arrived in England.

— Bombardment of the Narrows of the Dardanelles by the Allied Fleets. The battleships *Irresistible* and *Ocean* and the French battleship *Bouvet* were sunk.

18. Bombs were dropped on Calais killing seven French refugees and injuring twelve.

— The steamer *Glenartney* was torpedoed near the *Royal Sovereign* light-ship.

— Snow fell in London and various parts of the country.

19. The Cardiff steamer *Blue Jacket* was torpedoed fifteen miles off Beachy Head.

21. The steamer *Cairntoors*, with a cargo of coal, was torpedoed about eleven miles from Beachy Head.

— Lord Kitchener inspected the troops at Liverpool and appealed for more men.

22. *The Times* announced that the Academy banquet would not take place.

— Fall of Przemyśl.

24. Bombs were dropped by British airmen on the German submarines under construction at Hoboken near Antwerp.

— By an Order in Council, the Admiralty or Army Council were empowered to take possession of unoccupied premises for the purpose of housing workmen employed in handling war material.

25. *The Times* announced that the Royal Geographical Society had awarded its Founders Medal to Sir Douglas Mawson.

25. The King visited a portion of the Fleet at Harwich and Felixstowe.

— The Dutch steamer *Medea* was sunk by the German submarine U 28 off Beachy Head.

26. Announcement that the German submarine U 29 had been sunk with all hands.

— The steamship *Delmira* was torpedoed by a German submarine off Honfleur.

— The Grand National was won by Lady Nelson's Ally Sloper.

27. Mr. Claude Hamilton Archer Hill, of the Indian Civil Service, was appointed an ordinary member of the Council of the Governor-General of India.

— The President of the French Republic bestowed the decoration "Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour" on Sir Archibald Murray, deputy Chief of the Imperial General Staff.

— The *Aguila*, a ship belonging to Messrs. Yeoward Bros., was sunk by a submarine with the loss of twenty-six lives.

28. The *Falaba*, an Elder Dempster liner, was sunk by a German submarine to the south of the St. George's Channel with the loss of 111 lives.

29. In a twenty-round boxing contest Bombardier Wells, heavy-weight champion of Great Britain, was knocked out by F. Moran of America.

30. Mr. Hartley Withers was appointed Director of Financial Inquiries at the Treasury.

— A consignment of gold amounting to about two million sterling arrived safely in London from South Africa.

31. Announcement that a Committee had been appointed under the Chairmanship of Mr. Cecil Harmsworth, M.P., to consider the conditions of retail trade which can best secure the further enlistment of men without interfering with the necessary operations of trade.

— Lord Derby announced that a dockers' battalion would be formed to carry out Government work in the port of Liverpool.

— The French steamer *Emma* was sunk by a torpedo off Beachy Head with the loss of nineteen lives.

APRIL.

1. The s.s. *Seven Seas* was torpedoed off Beachy Head with the loss of nine lives.

2. The trawlers *Jason*, *Gloxinia* and *Nellie* were sunk in the North Sea by the German submarine U 10.

— The Middlesbrough steamer *Loughwood* was torpedoed about twenty-five miles south-west of the Start.

3. The *City of Bremen*, a collier, was torpedoed off Land's End with a loss of four lives.

4. Easter Sunday.

5. The Cardiff steamer *Northlands* was torpedoed off Beachy Head.

5. *The Times* announced that the Rev. John Herkless, D.D., had been appointed Principal of the University of St. Andrews.

— Escape of two German prisoners from the concentration camp at Denbigh.

— The King commanded that no wines, spirits or beer should be consumed in any of his houses after the 6th.

— In the heavy-weight boxing championship of the world at Havana, Jack Johnson was knocked out by Jesse Willard.

6. The King granted a pardon to Mrs. Mary Johnson in respect of two convictions on charges of sending threatening letters. Mrs. Johnson had suffered two terms of imprisonment and was then proved to be innocent. She received 500*l.* in compensation.

7. Mr. Justice Warrington was appointed a Lord Justice of Appeal in succession to Sir Henry Buckley.

— A Barony of the United Kingdom was conferred on Sir Henry Buckley.

— *The Times* announced that Mr. George M. Booth had been appointed to assist the Government in the organisation of industry under the new Act.

8. Mr. Robert Younger, K.C., was appointed a Justice of the High Court in place of Mr. Justice Warrington.

— The German commerce destroyer, the *Prinz Eitel Friedrich*, was interned by the American authorities. The only German ship remaining at large was the *Kronprinz Wilhelm*.

— The Secretary of the Admiralty announced that thirty-seven British merchant vessels and six British fishing vessels had been sunk since the declaration of the blockade on February 18.

9. A fire broke out in the great tobacco warehouse of the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board, at Stanley Dock, Liverpool, and did much damage.

— One of the London and South-Western Railway Company's Guernsey steamers was wrecked with the loss of seven lives.

10. *The Times* announced that three men of the names of Kuepferle, Müller, and Hahn had been arrested in this country on the charge of communicating naval and military intelligence to the enemy by writing in invisible ink to various addresses on the Continent.

— The Newbury Spring Cup was won by Lord Rosebery's Wrack.

11. The *Kronprinz Wilhelm*, the last of the German auxiliary cruisers, arrived in Hampton Roads.

— The two German officers who had escaped from the internment camp in Denbighshire on the 5th were recaptured at a village in Cardigan Bay.

12. The Liverpool dockers' battalion was inaugurated and 350 men were reviewed by Lord Derby.

— The special London campaign undertaken by the Parliamentary Recruiting Committee was meeting with poor success.

— An explosion occurred in an Admiralty store at Lerwick in which five people were killed and twenty injured.

13. *The Times* announced that the price of bread in London was about to be increased to 8½d. a quartern.

14. A Zeppelin threw bombs on Wallsend and other places in the Tyne district ; but no lives were lost, and very little damage was done.

15. The steamer *Ptarmigan* was torpedoed in the North Sea with a loss of eight of the crew.

— In the early hours of the morning a Zeppelin dropped bombs on Lowestoft and Southwold, causing some damage to property but no injury to life. In the afternoon an aeroplane dropped nine bombs on Faversham and Sittingbourne, but did no damage ; the only loss of life resulting from these two raids was the destruction of a blackbird at Sittingbourne.

— The King appointed Vice-Admiral Sir Colin Richard Keppel, K.C.I.E., etc., to be Sergeant-at-Arms in succession to Sir David Erskine, K.C.V.O.

16. *The Times* announced that Sir John Thursby had been elected a steward of the Jockey Club.

17. The transport submarine *Manitou* was attacked by a Turkish torpedo-boat in the *Ægean*. Fifty-one British soldiers were drowned and the torpedo-boat was destroyed on the coast of Chios.

— The late Lord Rothschild's estate was provisionally valued at 2,500,000*l.* in net personalty.

— The property of the late Mr. Arthur Keen of Birmingham was provisionally valued at 1,000,000*l.* in net personalty.

— The Liberal Executive Council of the Elland division decided not to nominate again their present member, Mr. C. P. Trevelyan, on account of his attitude towards the war.

18. The British submarine E 15 ran ashore and was lost on Kephez point in the Dardanelles.

— The famous air-man Garros was forced to land in West Flanders and was taken prisoner.

19. A German submarine sank the trawler *Vanilla* and all hands were drowned.

— Three German prisoners escaped from the detention camp at Douglas, Isle of Man, but were recaptured next day.

— A "record" day at the central recruiting office in London.

20. *The Times* announced that the late Lord Ardilaun had left unsettled personal estate in the United Kingdom valued at 495,638*l.*

— The posthumous honour of K.C.B. was conferred on the late Brigadier-General Gough who had died of wounds on February 21. (See Obit.)

21. The City and Suburban handicap was won by Mr. J. B. Joel's Black Jester.

22. *The Times* announced that the 1st battalion of the Welsh Guards had reached the establishment figure and that recruiting for the 2nd battalion was proceeding vigorously.

— The steam-trawler *St. Lawrence* was sunk by a German submarine on the Dogger Bank.

— Rubens's "The Adoration of the Magi" was sold in New York for 2,600*l.*

25. The disembarkation of the Dardanelles army on the Gallipoli Peninsula began.

26. The *Kronprinz Wilhelm* was interned at Newport News. This was the last armed German vessel on the high seas.

— The London Flour Millers' Association advanced the price of town households by 1s. to 53s.

— The Prince of Wales's Fund reached 5,000,000*l*.

26-27. The armoured cruiser *Léon Gambetta* was torpedoed by an Austrian submarine at the entrance to the Otranto States.

27. Colonel Cadell and Colonel W. C. Knight, D.S.O., of the Indian Army were appointed Brigadier-Generals.

— Both Houses of the Convocation of Canterbury assembled at Westminster.

— The Red Cross sale of objects of artistic and antiquarian interest came to an end. It realised 47,400*l*.

28. *The Times* announced that the Government had decided to blockade the coast of the Cameroons as from midnight April 23-24.

— M. Ribot, the French Minister of Finance, arrived in London.

— About 3,000 men enlisted in London in the course of this and the two preceding days.

— The Two Thousand Guineas was won by Mr. S. B. Joel's Pommeru.

29. The Marquess of Lincolnshire, K.G., G.C.V.O., was appointed Lord-Lieutenant to the County of Buckingham.

30. A German airship dropped incendiary bombs on Ipswich and Bury St. Edmunds. There was no personal injury.

— The King accompanied by Lord Kitchener visited the Royal Small Arms Factory at Enfield Lock.

— The One Thousand Guineas was won by Lord Rosebery's Vacluse.

MAY.

1. *The Times* announced the appointment of Lord Aberdeen as High Commissioner of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland.

— The destroyer *Recruit* was sunk by a submarine and two German torpedo-boats were sunk by a division of British destroyers.

— The American oil-tank vessel the *Gulfight* was torpedoed by a German submarine off the Bishops Lighthouse.

— The two German officers who had escaped from their camp near Denbigh during the night of April 4 were each sentenced to twenty-eight days' imprisonment without hard labour.

3. A large fire broke out in the City on the premises of Messrs. Henry Bucknall & Sons and destroyed a six-storey building and part of the arched glass roof of Fenchurch Street Station.

— The late Mr. Charles W. Post of the United States, head of a company which manufactured various patent foods, left a fortune valued for probate at 4,294,423*l*.

5. The Chester Cup was won by Mr. C. B. Ismay's Hare Hill.

— During the preceding week five British ships and seventeen British fishing vessels were sunk by the enemy.

6. *The Times* announced that the Board of Trade were about to prohibit from May 13 the export of coal and coke to all destinations abroad other than British possessions and protectorates and Allied countries.

7. The *Lusitania* was torpedoed off the Irish coast. (See History of the War.)

— *The Times* announced that the Ascot races would be greatly curtailed and that the meeting would be confined to three days.

— The Lord Chief Justice, Mr. Justice Avory and Mr. Justice Low decided that a wrinkle was a fish.

— The destroyer *Maori* struck a mine in the North Sea and the crew were taken prisoners by the Germans.

8. Libau was occupied by the Germans.

10. Lord Mersey was appointed to conduct an inquiry into the circumstances attending the loss of the *Lusitania*.

— A Zeppelin dropped nearly 100 bombs on Southend, killing a woman and doing damage to the extent of about 20,000*l*.

— The Queen paid a visit to the British Industries Fair at the Agricultural Hall, Islington.

11. A "Flag Day" in London for the benefit of the Russian Red Cross Society.

— The King and Queen were present at a *matinée* at the Palace Theatre given in aid of the Officers' Families Fund. The sum raised amounted to 1,330*l*.

— Notice was given that there would be no celebrations of the King's birthday either at home or abroad with the exception of the flying of flags.

— Anti-German rioting began in London and large numbers of shops belonging to Austrian and German tradesmen were rifled in the East End.

12. H.M.S. *Goliath* was torpedoed by Turkish destroyers in the Dardanelles.

— General Botha occupied Windhuk.

— A house fly exhibition was opened by Professor Maxwell-Lefroy at the Zoological Society's Gardens.

— Mr. A. A. Tobin, K.C., was appointed a County Court Judge.

13. The King gave directions that the names of the Emperor of Austria, the German Emperor, the King of Württemberg, the German Crown Prince and other German Princes should be struck off the roll of Knights of the Garter.

— The King and Queen attended a concert at the Albert Hall promoted by Madame Clara Butt in aid of the British Red Cross Society and the Order of St. John of Jerusalem.

— Orders were given for the arrest of all alien enemies in London of military age.

14. *The Times* announced the appointment of Mr. Justice Molony as a Lord Justice of Appeal in Ireland.

— The internment of enemy aliens began throughout the United Kingdom.

— A strike began of the London County Council tramway-men.

17. A Zeppelin dropped bombs on Ramsgate and injured four people.

— "The lowest summer prices" for best coal were reached at 34s. a ton.

18. *The Times* announced that Holbein's portrait of Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex had been bought by Mr. H. C. Frick, of New York, for a price stated to be 40,000*l*.

— The steamer *Drumcree* was torpedoed by a German submarine off the Cornish coast.

19. In response to an inquiry at Lloyds a premium of 40 guineas per cent. was quoted against the risk of the continuance of the war to the end of March 1916, and 25 guineas per cent. against the same risk to the end of June 1916.

— The Stewards of the Jockey Club decided at the request of the Government to suspend all racing during the war except at Newmarket.

20. The King made an inspection of the Elswick Works of Armstrong, Whitworth & Co., on the Tyne, and subsequently reviewed a large body of troops near Newcastle.

— Recruiting in London was proceeding very slowly.

21. The King granted the Victoria Cross to Lieutenant-Commander E. C. Boyle, R.N., for conspicuous bravery in command of submarine E 14 in the Dardanelles.

— The President of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division condemned the German hospital ship *Ophelia* in the prize court, on the ground that she was used as a signalling ship for military purposes.

22. The worst disaster in the history of British railways took place near Gretna Green. A troop train carrying 500 soldiers ran into a local passenger train and a third train then ran into the wreckage. The number of lives lost was 157 and about 200 injured, mostly men of the 7th Royal Scots.

23. Italy declared war on Austria.

— Last day of horse-racing.

24. Austrian air-raid on Venice.

25. The American steamer *Nebraskan* was torpedoed off the South-West of Ireland.

26. The constitution of the new Cabinet was announced.

— H.M.S. *Triumph* was sunk by a submarine off the Gallipoli Peninsula.

— The British submarine E 11 entered Constantinople and torpedoed a transport.

— A Zeppelin dropped bombs on Southend, killing two women and injuring a child.

27. H.M.S. *Majestic* was torpedoed by a submarine off the Gallipoli Peninsula.

27. H.M. auxiliary ship *Princess Irene* was accidentally blown up in Sheerness harbour with the loss of almost the entire crew.

— *The Times* announced the appointment of a Central Control Board (Liquor Traffic) to deal with the drink problem in the munitions, transport, and camp areas.

28. *The Times* announced the appointment of Admiral Sir Henry Jackson, K.C.V.O., F.R.S., as First Sea Lord of the Admiralty.

— The French Atlantic liner *Champagne* was wrecked off St. Nazaire.

30. Opening of the Russian opera season.

31. A Zeppelin attack on London resulted in the death of two or three people. About ninety bombs were dropped.

JUNE.

3. The King's birthday honours included the names chiefly of people engaged in national service. Lord Kitchener became a Knight of the Garter; Sir Francis Bertie, the British Ambassador at Paris, and Sir Kenneth Muir-Mackenzie, Permanent Principal Secretary to the Lord Chancellor, were created peers. The new Privy Councillors included Lord Robert Cecil and Mr. J. M. Robertson. Mr. C. S. Loch, Mr. Chiozza Money and Mr. W. N. Shaw, F.R.S., were created knights. Sir Rennell Rodd, the British Ambassador at Rome, received the G.C.M.G., while Sir George Buchanan, Ambassador at Petrograd, received the G.C.B. General Sir Bruce Hamilton was also promoted to be G.C.B. in the military division.

— Przemyśl was recaptured by the enemy.

— Surrender of the town of Amara in Mesopotamia to the British troops.

— Re-opening of Parliament.

— Mr. Asquith returned from a visit of four days to the British front.

4. Conclusion of the trial of two spies named Müller and Hahn at the Old Bailey. Müller was sentenced to be shot and Hahn to seven years' penal servitude.

— The Labour newspaper *The Daily Citizen* came to an end.

— Hostile airships dropped bombs at various places on the East and South-East coast of England, doing little material damage.

5. A charge brought by the Crown at the Mansion House Police Court against *The Times* jointly with Major E. H. Richardson, of publishing information which might be directly useful to the enemy, was dismissed.

7. Flight Sub-Lieutenant R. A. J. Warneford, R.N., attacked a Zeppelin in the air between Ghent and Brussels at 6,000 ft. and destroyed it. He received the V.C. for this action.

— A Zeppelin visited the East coast and dropped incendiary and explosive bombs, resulting in five deaths and forty injured.

— *The Times* announced the arrest of a German spy named Robert Rosenthal, who confessed that he was sent over by the German Admiralty to obtain information on naval matters.

— The price of flour reduced to 50s. a sack.

7. The Registrar-General's returns of births and deaths showed that in Greater London the number of births per week was from 400 to 500 below the average, and the infant mortality about 200 above the average.

8. The thermometer in London registered 86° in the shade and at Cromer 90°.

— The late Sir Charles Seely, Bart., left estate of the gross value of 1,052,070*l*.

9. *The Times* announced the appointments of the Right Hon. Robert Munro, K.C., M.P., as Lord Advocate, and Mr. T. V. Morison, K.C., as Solicitor-General for Scotland.

10. The Russians defeated the Germans and Austrians on the Dniester, capturing 17 guns, 49 machine-guns, 188 officers and about 6,500 soldiers, including an entire company of the Guard regiment of the Prussian Fusiliers.

12. A bye-election in the College Green division of Dublin resulted in the return of the Nationalist candidate, Mr. J. D. Nugent, by a majority of 629 over the Labour candidate.

13. Serious fire at Dunrobin Castle, the residence of the Duke of Sutherland.

15. A Zeppelin visited the North-East coast and dropped bombs resulting in fifteen deaths and fifteen wounded.

— The New Derby, which was run at Newmarket, was won by Mr. S. B. Joel's Pommeru.

17. Flight Sub-Lieutenant Warneford, V.C., was killed accidentally by the fall of his aeroplane near Paris (*v. Obit.*).

— Return of the deputation of Glasgow munition workers who had been to France to acquire information about the British front.

— The New Oaks, at Newmarket, was won by Mr. L. Newmann's Snow Marten.

18. Announcement by *The Times* that the President of the Board of Agriculture had appointed a Departmental Committee under the Chairmanship of Lord Milner for the purpose of maintaining the production of food.

— Announcement that Mr. H. M. Gladstone had been appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Flintshire.

— Two iron merchants, belonging to the firm of Messrs. William Jacks & Co. of Glasgow, were found guilty of trading with the enemy and sentenced each to six months' imprisonment and a fine of 2,000*l*.

19. Lord Harlech was appointed to command the Welsh Guards.

20. H.M.S. *Roxburgh* was struck by a torpedo in the North Sea, but sustained no serious damage.

21. The trial of General De Wet at Bloemfontein ended in a verdict of guilty on eight out of the ten counts of the treason indictment. He was sentenced to six years' imprisonment and a fine of 2,000*l*.

— Dismissal of the appeal of the German spy Müller against the death sentence.

— In an interview with the correspondent of the *Liberté* the Pope expressed himself as neutral and favourable to peace.

22. Recapture of Lemberg by the Austrians.
23. The Prince of Wales came of age.
 - The spy Müller was shot at the Tower.
24. Announcement that Major-General R. A. Montgomery, C.V.O., C.B., had been temporarily appointed Director of Recruiting.
25. The V.C. was conferred upon Lieut.-Commander Martin Eric Nasmith, R.N., for destroying several Turkish ships with his submarine in the Sea of Marmora.
26. Suppression of the German Socialist paper *Vorwärts*.
28. The Leyland liner *Armenian*, a vessel of nearly 8,900 tons, was torpedoed off the Cornish coast by the German submarine U 38.
 - Announcement by *The Times* that the Paris Académie des Sciences had awarded the Lecomte triennial prize of 2,000*l.* to Sir Almroth Wright.
29. The V.C. was granted to ten officers and men, two of whom had already died from wounds.
 - Ngaundere in the Central Cameroon was occupied by the Allied forces.
 - Mr. Long introduced the Bill for the compilation of a National Register.
 - Arrival in England of a number of wounded prisoners of war and men of the R.A.M.C. exchanged with the Germans.
30. *The Times* announced that the Arundell Estate, lying between Shaftesbury Avenue and Coventry Street, had been sold for 250,000*l.*
 - Dr. Straton, Bishop of Newcastle, announced his resignation in a letter to his diocese.

JULY.

1. Sir Thomas Lawrence's picture of the two daughters of Colonel Cartaret Hardy was sold for 5,200 guineas.
 - George Joseph Smith was convicted of murder and sentenced to death in what was called the Brides Case. He had gone through a form of marriage with various women, three of whom had soon afterwards been found dead in their baths under almost identical circumstances.
 - Four merchant vessels were sunk by German submarines.
2. A British submarine, under Commander Max K. Horton, D.S.O., torpedoed the German battleship *Pommern* in the Baltic.
3. Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan was attacked and wounded at his house in Long Island by an individual of German sympathies.
4. Lord Fisher was appointed Chairman of the Inventions Board, established to assist the Admiralty in co-ordinating scientific effort in its relation to the Navy.
 - The late Mr. A. E. Thistlethwayte left unsettled property valued at 1,482,333*l.*
 - Destruction of the German cruiser *Königsberg* in the Rufigi River by two river monitors.

5. *The Times* announced that Mr. Dyson Perrins had offered 25,000*l.* to Queen's College, Oxford, for instruction and research in Chemistry.

— Two German prisoners escaped from Donington Hall. One of them was recaptured later in the day.

6. A conference took place at Calais between the Prime Minister, Lord Crewe, Lord Kitchener and Mr. Balfour on the one hand, and M. Viviani, M. Delcassé, M. Millerand, M. Augagneur, M. Thomas and General Joffre on the other hand. Sir John French was also present.

7. Celebration of "France's Day" in London.

8. The Italian cruiser *Amalfi* was torpedoed in the Upper Adriatic.

— Mr. Balfour unveiled a marble bust of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain in the Council Chamber of the Guildhall.

9. Surrender of the German forces in South-West Africa.

10. The King returned to London from a visit to the Grand Fleet.

13. *The Times* announced that Sir Murray Hammick, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., had been appointed a member of the Council of India, and that Canon E. H. M. Waller had been nominated as Bishop of Tinnevely.

— The Chancellor of the Exchequer announced that the subscriptions to the War Loan had resulted in a total of nearly 600,000,000*l.*

14. The *Fête Nationale* of France was celebrated in London and elsewhere as "French Flag Day."

15. *The Times* announced the appointments of Sir G. S. Barnes, K.C.B., as an ordinary member of the Council of the Governor-General of India; and of L. Sanderson, Esq., K.C., M.P., as Chief Justice of the Calcutta High Court.

— Commencement of the South Wales coal strike (*v.* English History).

— Execution of the German spy Robert Rosenthal.

17. Lord Mersey read the report of the court which inquired into the loss of the *Lusitania* (*v.* European War).

21. End of the South Wales coal strike.

— The Socialist National Defence Committee held a patriotic meeting at Queen's Hall, in the course of which there were some pacifist disturbances.

22. The Prime Minister received a deputation from the City of London, which urged the importance of greater thrift and immediate new taxation on all classes.

23. The King visited several large factories in Birmingham engaged in the production of war material. He expressed his confidence that, if the output of munitions were maintained and increased, victory would be certain.

— Mr. Geoffrey Pyke and Mr. Edward Falk, two civilians who had been interned at Ruhleben, made good their escape and reached Holland.

24. *The Times* announced that Commander Max Horton, whose submarine sank the German cruiser *Pommern* in the Baltic, had been decorated with the Order of St. George (fourth class) of Russia.

24. The V.C. was awarded to four officers and non-commissioned officers, and the D.S.O. to twelve officers, for gallantry in the field.

26. A German destroyer was sunk by a British submarine near the German coast.

— Mr. Henry James was naturalised, and took the oath of allegiance as a British subject.

— Sir Robert Borden returned to London from a week's visit to France.

27. Mr. Asquith announced that the total number of British casualties up to date amounted to 330,995.

28. A hydrogen explosion occurred at the Wormwood Scrubbs airship shed, in which two air mechanics were killed and nine injured.

— The House of Lords gave judgment in favour of the Great Western and Metropolitan Railway Companies against the Hammersmith and Kensington Assessment Committees. The effect of the judgment was to reduce the rateable value of the Hammersmith and City line to a nominal amount.

30. Execution of two spies who had been sentenced to death by a general court-martial on July 16 and 17.

— A fire at the Ardeer Factory, Glasgow, caused several explosions, and three men were killed and thirty-nine injured.

— The Leyland liner *Iberian* was sunk by a German submarine with six men killed.

AUGUST.

1. Opening of the Duma at Petrograd.

2. Mr. Rockefeller purchased the Linton "Aphrodite" for 18,750*l*.

— Professor A. C. Seward was elected Master of Downing College, Cambridge, in succession to the late Professor Howard Marsh.

3. The King presented their first colours to the Welsh Guards in the grounds of Buckingham Palace.

4. *The Times* announced that Sir Frederick Black had been appointed Director-General of Munitions Supply.

— The King and Queen and Queen Alexandra attended a service at St. Paul's Cathedral to inaugurate the second year of the war by invoking God's help.

— Announcement that General Bissing, the German Governor-General of Belgium, had been recalled.

— Arrest of Mr. Tribich Lincoln, a former Liberal M.P., at Brooklyn, on charges of forgery.

5. Capture of Warsaw by the Germans.

6. Four guineas per cent. were paid in London to cover the risk of a total loss should peace not be declared between Great Britain and Germany before the end of September, 1917.

— Landing of a new army at Suvla Bay in Gallipoli.

8. H.M.S. auxiliary cruiser *India* was sunk in the North Sea by a German submarine, 22 officers and 119 men being saved.

9. The Turkish battleship *Hairredin Barbarossa* was sunk by a British submarine.

— H.M.S. *Lynx* (destroyer) struck a mine in the North Sea and sank with a loss of about seventy-five men.

— A squadron of hostile airships dropped incendiary bombs on the East coast, killing fourteen and wounding fourteen people.

— Eighty-five per cent. was quoted against the risk of peace not being declared by the end of the year, and 20 per cent. against its not being declared by the end of 1916.

11. A public meeting at the Queen's Hall passed a resolution urging the Government to declare cotton contraband.

— Major-General A. G. Hunter-Weston was appointed a K.C.B. in recognition of distinguished service in the field.

— Two German officers escaped from Oldcastle internment camp, West Meath.

12. Two Zeppelins visited the East coast, killing six people and wounding twenty-three.

— The Austrian submarine U3 was sunk in the Adriatic.

13. The two German officers who escaped on the 11th from the Oldcastle internment camp were recaptured.

14. The British transport *Royal Edward* was sunk by a submarine in the Ægean with the loss of about 1,000 lives.

— Three German officers escaped from Duffryn Aled detention camp, Llansannan.

— The express train from Euston to Holyhead was derailed, nine passengers being killed and about thirty seriously wounded.

15. The National Register was taken throughout Great Britain.

— Lord Kitchener landed in France on a visit to the French Army.

16. A German submarine fired several shells at Parton, Harrington, and Whitehaven without causing any material damage.

— A railway accident at Pollokshaws West Station near Glasgow resulted in one man being killed and several injured.

— The three German officers who had escaped on the 14th were recaptured at Llandudno.

— The V.C. was conferred upon several officers and men of the Royal Navy in connexion with their exploits during the landing at Gallipoli.

17. A Zeppelin raid in the Eastern counties resulted in ten persons being killed and thirty-six injured.

— Capture of Kovno by the Germans.

18. The offices of the *Labour Leader* were raided by the police, who carried off a number of pamphlets dealing with labour and the war.

19. The White Star liner *Arabic* was sunk without warning by a German submarine, south of Ireland, with a loss of about thirty-three persons.

— The Germans captured the fortress of Novo-Georgievsk.

— Opening of the Reichstag.

19. Six Judges were appointed for the new High Court of Judicature of the new province of Behar and Orissa.

— The submarine E 13 went aground on the Danish Island of Saltholm.

20. Italy declared war on Turkey.

21. The British and French Governments declared cotton absolute contraband.

22. The Germans captured the fortress of Osowiec.

— The Holt liner *Diomed* was sunk with the loss of three men killed and seven drowned.

23. The King conferred the V.C. on a number of officers and men for bravery in the field.

24. *The Times* announced the appointment of Professor Grierson to the Chair of Rhetoric and English Literature in the University of Edinburgh.

25. Two hundred and fifty-eight wounded British officers and men arrived at Tilbury, having been released by the Germans as unfit for further service.

— The Germans captured the fortress of Brest Litovsk.

26. Squadron Commander A. W. Bigsworth, R.N., destroyed a German submarine off Ostend by dropping bombs on it from an aeroplane.

29. A party of Frenchmen, including M. Stephen Pichon, M. Joseph Reinach, M. René Bazin, M. Pierre Mille, M. Ponsot, arrived in London on their way to pay a week's visit to the Grand Fleet.

29-30. Russian victory in Galicia; 3,000 German prisoners were taken together with thirty guns and twenty-four machine-guns.

31. Coal strike in South Wales, involving 25,000 miners, was settled by a Conference at the Board of Trade.

SEPTEMBER.

1. The V.C. was conferred on four officers and one non-commissioned officer for conspicuous bravery in Turkey.

— Grodno was evacuated by the Russians.

2. The King and Lord Kitchener visited Shorncliffe district to inspect Canadian troops.

3-6. General Joffre paid a visit to the Italian front.

4. The Allan Liner *Hesperian* was torpedoed 130 miles west of Queens-town, and sank about thirty-five hours later; thirty-two lives were lost.

5. General Alexis Evert was appointed to succeed General Alexeieff as one of the Commanders-in-Chief on the Russian Western front.

— Russian destroyers damaged the Turkish cruiser *Hamidieh* and sunk four colliers in the Black Sea.

6. *The Times* announced the appointment of a Committee under the Chairmanship of Lord Lansdowne to deal with problems arising out of the taking of the National Register.

— The V.C. was conferred on 2nd Lieutenant S. C. Woodroffe who had already been killed on July 30 (*v. Obit.*).

6. In a railway accident on the Great Northern near Newark Station one person was killed and four injured.

— Opening of the Trades Union Congress at Bristol.

— The Czar assumed command of the Russian Armies, with General Alexeieff as Chief of Staff.

7. Three Zeppelins dropped bombs on the Eastern counties, causing fifty-six casualties.

— The Russians defeated the Germans in Galicia, capturing nearly 12,000 prisoners.

— The Trades Union Congress passed a unanimous resolution of protest against compulsory service.

8. The British Association met at Manchester under the presidency of Professor Arthur Schuster.

— Bombs were dropped in parts of London causing 106 casualties.

9. *The Times* announced that the Admiralty had appointed Rear-Admiral C. L. Vaughan-Lee Director of Air-Services.

10. Execution of a spy whose name was withheld from the public.

— Mr. Tribich Lincoln, late M.P., was ordered by the American courts to be extradited to England on a charge of forgery.

11. Zeppelins dropped bombs on the East coast without causing any casualties or damage.

12. Bombs were dropped on the East coast without causing any casualties.

13. A German aeroplane dropped bombs on the Kentish coast causing six casualties. A Zeppelin also visited the East coast but caused no casualties or damage.

— Admiral Sir Percy Scott, Bart., K.C.B., K.C.V.O., was appointed to take charge of the gunnery defences of London against attack by enemy aircraft.

14. Re-assembling of Parliament.

— Announcement that the British casualties for the first year of the war were as follows :—

| | <i>Officers.</i> | <i>Men.</i> |
|--------------------------|------------------|-------------|
| Killed or died of wounds | 4,965 | 70,992 |
| Wounded | 9,972 | 241,086 |
| Missing | 1,501 | 53,466 |
| Total | | 381,982 |

15. The signalman responsible for the Gretna railway collision on May 22 was sentenced to three years' penal servitude ; and another signalman secondarily responsible to eighteen months' imprisonment.

16. The Admiralty announced that the Turks had sunk submarine E 7 and captured three officers and twenty-nine men of the crew.

— Mr. Tennant stated in the House of Commons that the British casualties in the Mediterranean Expeditionary Force up till August 21 included 3,874 officers and 83,756 men.

— The President of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty division gave judgment on claims made in the prize court arising out of the seizure of

23,000,000 lb. of meat products consigned from Chicago to Copenhagen. The President adopted the doctrine of "continuous voyage," and found that the greater part of the consignments were destined for Germany; he disallowed therefore a great part of the claims.

17. Execution of an unnamed prisoner who had been found guilty of espionage by a court-martial on August 20.

— Five German prisoners escaped from Dorchester camp, two of them being recaptured later in the day.

18. The Germans captured Vilna.

— A number of the employees of Messrs. Cammell, Laird & Co. were fined sums varying from 5s. to 60s. by the Liverpool munitions tribunal for persistent loss of time.

— Richard Gorges, an ex-army captain, was sentenced to twelve years' penal servitude for the manslaughter of a detective who had come to arrest him.

21. *The Times* announced that Sir Frederick Donaldson, K.C.B., had resigned his post of Chief Superintendent of Woolwich Arsenal.

— Mr. McKenna introduced the Budget in the House of Commons.

— M. Bark, the Russian Finance Minister, arrived in London for a conference with Mr. McKenna.

— Stonehenge was sold by auction to Mr. C. H. E. Chubb, of Salisbury, for 6,600*l.*

— A fire occurred at Exhall Colliery near Nuneaton, resulting in the loss of fourteen lives.

22. *The Times* announced that Sir Frederick Donaldson, K.C.B., had been appointed to act temporarily as technical adviser to the Ministry of Munitions.

— French aeroplanes dropped bombs on the Royal Palace at Stuttgart as a reprisal for the bombardment of open towns by the Germans.

— Sir Horace Plunkett opened an exhibition of vegetable and home-grown produce at the Horticultural Hall, Westminster.

— Closure of subscriptions to the third German War Loan. The amount raised was 601,500,000*l.*

— Mobilisation of the Bulgarian Army.

23. Mobilisation of the Greek Army.

24. An Order in Council was gazetted applying to London the Defence of the Realm (liquor control) regulations, 1915.

25. Announcement in *The Times* that the Earl of Cavan had been chosen a representative peer for Ireland in the place of the late Earl of Kilmorey.

— The German line was pierced by the British Army south of La Bassée Canal and by the French Army in Champagne.

27. The King visited several munition works at Leeds and subsequently addressed wounded soldiers.

28. *The Times* announced that the late Sir John Barwick, Bart., of Yorkshire, had left estate of the gross value of 625,403*l.*

— The Rev. E. W. Barnes, F.R.S., was appointed Master of the Temple.

29. The Home Secretary issued a new order for the reduction of lighting in London.

— The Ven. H. L. Wild, Archdeacon of Nottingham, was appointed Bishop of Newcastle.

OCTOBER.

2. Russia addressed an ultimatum to Bulgaria demanding that the German and Austrian officers in that country be removed within twenty-four hours.

5. The King approved of the formation of a Machine Gun Corps.

— Opening of the Annual Conference of the Miners' Federation at Nottingham.

— Russia declared war on Bulgaria.

— French and British troops landed at Salonika.

6. *The Times* announced that Lord Derby had undertaken the direction of recruiting for the Army.

7. Rembrandt's "Portrait of a Boy" was sold by Lord Spencer for a price believed to be about 35,000*l*.

8. Belgrade was occupied by Austro-German troops.

11. A French official communication stated that Vice-Admiral Boué de Lapeyrère had resigned his position as Commander-in-Chief of the French naval forces on account of illness; and that he had been succeeded by Vice-Admiral Dartige du Fournet.

12. *The Times* announced that General Sir Henry Mackinnon would act as chief military assistant to Lord Derby, Director of Recruiting.

— Diplomatic relations were broken off between Great Britain and Bulgaria.

— Execution of Miss Edith Cavell at Brussels by the Germans on a charge of harbouring fugitive British and French soldiers and Belgians of military age, and assisting them to escape from Belgium.

13. A fleet of hostile airships dropped bombs on London and the Eastern counties, causing 142 casualties, including forty-one killed.

14. A German destroyer was torpedoed by a British submarine off the Island of Møen in the South of Denmark.

15. Great Britain declared war upon Bulgaria as from 10 P.M.

— The Lord Mayor presided at a Mansion House meeting for the inauguration of the National Fund for the relief of Armenians and other victims who had escaped from the massacres in Asiatic Turkey.

16. France declared war upon Bulgaria as from 6 A.M.

18. It was announced that General Sir Ian Hamilton, G.C.B., D.S.O., was returning to England to make a report; and that he had been succeeded in the command of the Mediterranean Expeditionary Force by General Sir C. C. Monro, K.C.B.

19. *The Times* announced that Sir Edward Carson had resigned his office as Attorney-General.

19. Execution of an unnamed prisoner who had been found guilty of espionage by general court-martial in London.

— Major-General (temporary Lieutenant-General) Sir Archibald Murray was appointed a member of the Army Council.

— The British transport *Ramazan* was sunk by shell-fire from a submarine off the Island of Antikythera in the Ægean Sea with the loss of about 300 Indian troops.

22. The King went to France to visit the Army.

— Bombardment of Dedeagatch by the British Fleet.

— A British subject charged with spying was sentenced at the Old Bailey to penal servitude for life.

23. Publication of a letter by the King appealing to men of all classes to come forward voluntarily and take their share in the fight.

— Sir Ian Hamilton had a conference at the War Office with Lord Kitchener on his return from Gallipoli.

— A British submarine near Libau sank the German cruiser *Prinz Adalbert*.

26. Contact was established between the German and Bulgarian forces in Serbia.

— Execution of an unnamed spy in London.

— Underwriters accepted five guineas per cent. for a policy, providing for the payment of a total loss claim should King Ferdinand still be on the Bulgarian throne on June 30, 1916.

— The King approved the formation of a corps to be called "The British West Indies Regiment."

27. *The Times* announced the sinking of the British transport *Marquette* in the Ægean Sea.

— Execution of another prisoner who had been found guilty of espionage.

28. H.M.S. *Argyll* was wrecked in bad weather off the East coast of Scotland.

— Announcement that Lieutenant-General Sir Bryan Mahon was in command of the British troops in Serbia.

— The King while inspecting the Army in France was thrown off his horse and severely bruised.

— H.M.S. *Hythe* was sunk off the Gallipoli Peninsula, after a collision with another vessel, with a loss of over 150 men.

29. General Joffre, who had arrived in London, visited Lord Kitchener at the War Office.

— Mr. Asquith stated that the total casualties in the British Army in all the fields of operation from the beginning of the war up to October 9 amounted to 493,294; of which 365,046 were in the Western area. Among officers there were 6,660 killed, 12,633 wounded, and 2,000 missing. Of other ranks there were 94,992 killed, 304,832 wounded, and 72,177 missing.

— Memorial service at St. Paul's for Miss Edith Cavell.

30. A large fire in the leather manufacturing district of Bermondsey caused much damage.

— General Joffre after a visit to the Queen and to the War Office left Victoria on his return to the French general head-quarters.

NOVEMBER.

1. H.M. torpedo-boat No. 96 sank after a collision in the Straits of Gibraltar.

— *The Times* announced that Sir Henry Paul Harvey, K.C.M.G., had been appointed to act as a representative of the Treasury in the United States; and that Mr. D. H. Boggis-Rolfe would act as Chief Auditor, National Insurance Audit Department, during his absence.

2. *The Times* announced that the Nobel Prize for Medicine for 1914 had been awarded to Dr. Robert Barany of Vienna University for his work on the physiology and pathology of the vestibule of the ear.

— General Maunoury was appointed Military Governor of Paris in place of General Galliéni.

3. Tibati in Cameroon was occupied by an Anglo-French force.

4. *The Times* announced that the Right Hon. Sir Frederick Smith, K.C., M.P., had been appointed Attorney-General in succession to Sir Edward Carson, and that the Right Hon. George Cave had been appointed Solicitor-General in succession to Sir Frederick Smith.

— The Theatres and Music Halls Committee of the London County Council refused to renew the licence for the Bechstein Hall on the ground that the proprietors were Germans.

— Resignation of the Greek Government in consequence of a defeat in the Chamber.

5. Mr. Balfour unveiled at Waterloo Place a statue in memory of the late Captain Scott.

— The Bulgarians captured Nish after a three days' battle.

— H.M. armed boarding steamer *Tara* was sunk by submarines in the Eastern Mediterranean with a loss of thirty-four of her crew.

6. Announcement that Lord Kitchener had left England on a short visit to the Eastern theatre of war.

— Suppression of the *Globe* newspaper for persisting in its statement that Lord Kitchener had tendered his resignation.

7. The small German cruiser *Undine* was sunk by submarines off the south coast of Sweden in the Baltic.

— The *Ancona*, an Italian liner, was torpedoed off Sardinia by an Austrian submarine [*v. History of the War*] with a loss of 194 persons.

9. Election of Lord Mayors and Mayors throughout England and Wales. The elections were entirely non-political.

11. Announcement in *The Times* that the transport *Mercian* had been attacked by a submarine in the Mediterranean, with the loss of about 100 lives, and that H.M. torpedo-boat destroyer *Louis* had been stranded and wrecked in the Eastern Mediterranean.

— Mr. Asquith announced the composition of the new War Committee of the Cabinet [*v. English History*].

11. Mr. Lloyd George appointed Lord Murray of Elibank to act temporarily in an honorary capacity as Director of Recruiting for Munitions Work.

12. Mr. Winston Churchill resigned his office of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.

13. *The Times* announced that the Gilbert and Ellice Islands had by their own request been annexed to the British Empire.

14. Announcement that submarine E 20 had been lost in the Sea of Marmora.

16. Mr. Winston Churchill was presented with his portrait by Mr. John Lavery, as a gift from the officers of the Armoured Car Squadrons.

16-18. The Prime Minister, with Sir Edward Grey, Mr. Balfour and Mr. Lloyd George visited Paris for consultation with the French Government.

17. The hospital ship *Anglia* struck a mine and sank in the Channel with the loss of nearly 100 lives.

18. National observance of Russia's day.

— *The Times* announced the resignation of Mr. Justice Joyce from the Equity Bench.

— The personal estate of the late Duke of Buccleuch was valued at more than 1,100,000l.

— The V.C. was granted to eighteen officers and men, six of whom were already dead.

19. Announcement that Lieutenant-Commander Layton, lately in command of submarine E 13, who had been interned in Denmark, had made good his escape.

20. Lord Kitchener arrived at Athens, where he was received by King Constantine and the Premier, M. Skouloudis.

22. *The Times* announced that Mr. Arthur Frederic Peterson, K.C., had been appointed a Justice of the High Court, Chancery Division.

— The Committee of the Stock Exchange decided to allow in future free dealing in Consols, in two and a half per cent. and two and three-quarters per cent. Annuities, in Indian and Colonial Corporation stocks, and in foreign Government stocks.

— Re-appearance of the *Globe* newspaper.

— M. Albert Thomas, the French Minister of Munitions, arrived in London for conferences at the English Ministry of Munitions.

26. *The Times* announced that Mr. Herbert Samuel had been appointed Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster; the salary was remitted, but he retained his post as Postmaster-General, and occupied a seat in the Cabinet.

— Lord Kitchener at Rome.

29. The hours for the sale of drink in London were limited to from 12 noon to 2.30 P.M., and 6.30 P.M. to 9.30 P.M. on week-days, and from 1 P.M. to 3 P.M., and 6 P.M. to 9 P.M. on Sundays.

— The Queen inspected troops at Winchester on behalf of the King.

— Sir John French visited 10 Downing Street.

30. Lord Kitchener returned to London from his mission to the Eastern Mediterranean.

— Italy signed in London an undertaking not to make a separate peace.

DECEMBER.

1. *The Times* announced that Sir John Anderson, G.C.M.G., K.C.B., had been appointed Governor of Ceylon. Sir Robert Chalmers, K.C.B., the previous Governor, was appointed an additional Secretary to the Treasury.

2. The Prime Minister stated that the total British casualties during the war up to November 9 amounted to 510,230, including 22,000 officers.

— Colonel Hall Walker presented to the Government his racing stud.

4. Mr. Asquith, Lord Kitchener and Mr. Balfour with their naval and military advisers had a conference at Calais with M. Briand, General Galliéni and Admiral Lacaze.

6. Mr. Charles Sims, A.R.A., was elected a Royal Academician.

12. Last day of Lord Derby's recruiting scheme.

14. *The Times* announced that the Hon. Cecil T. Atkinson, K.C., had been appointed a Puisne Judge of the New High Court of Behar and Orissa.

— Mr. Tennant announced that Sir Horace Smith-Dorrien, G.C.B., had been appointed to the supreme command in East Africa.

16. Announcement that Sir Douglas Haig had been appointed to succeed Sir John French in command of the army in France and Flanders; and that Sir John French had been created a Viscount and appointed Commander-in-Chief of the troops stationed in the United Kingdom.

17. A railway accident at St. Bede's Junction on the Newcastle and South Shields branch of the North-Eastern Railway resulted in fourteen passengers being killed and about fifty injured.

18. President Wilson of the United States was married to Mrs. Norman Galt.

— A proclamation was issued calling up for service in the Army the men belonging to groups 2, 3, 4, 5 who had been attested under Lord Derby's scheme.

21. Announcement of the evacuation of Suvla and Anzac.

— The Nippon-Yusen-Kaisha steamship *Yasaka Maru* was sunk without warning in the Mediterranean.

27. *The Times* announced that the aggregate casualties in the main fields of operations up to December 9 amounted to 528,227.

— A violent gale did damage in various parts of the country.

28. The Cabinet agreed upon the principle of compulsory service for the Army.

29. *The Times* announced that Canon Harold E. Bilbrough, Rector of Liverpool, had been appointed to the Bishopric of Dover on the resignation of Dr. Walsh.

30. The armoured cruiser *Natal* blew up in port with a loss of about 300 officers and men.

— The P & O *Persia* was sunk by a torpedo about forty miles from Crete with a loss of nearly 200 lives.

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

DESPATCH RECEIVED ON FEBRUARY 12 BY THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR WAR FROM THE FIELD-MARSHAL COMMANDING-IN-CHIEF, THE BRITISH ARMY IN THE FIELD.

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS,
February 2, 1915.

MY LORD,

I have the honour to forward a further report on the operations of the Army under my command.

I. In the period under review the salient feature was the presence of His Majesty the King in the Field. His Majesty arrived at Headquarters on the 30th November, and left on the 5th December.

At a time when the strength and endurance of the troops had been tried to the utmost throughout the long and arduous Battle of Ypres-Armentières, the presence of His Majesty in their midst was of the greatest possible help and encouragement.

His Majesty visited all parts of the extensive area of operations and held numerous inspections of the troops behind the line of trenches.

On the 16th November Lieutenant His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, K.G., Grenadier Guards, joined my Staff as Aide-de-Camp.

II. Since the date of my last report the operations of the Army under my command have been subject almost entirely to the limitations of weather.

History teaches us that the course of campaigns in Europe, which have been actively prosecuted during the months of December and January, have been largely influenced by weather conditions. It should, however, be thoroughly understood throughout the country that the most recent development of armaments and the latest methods of conducting warfare have added greatly to the difficulties and drawbacks of a vigorous winter campaign.

To cause anything more than a waste of ammunition long-range artillery fire requires constant and accurate observation ; but this most necessary condition is rendered impossible of attainment in the midst of continual fog and mist.

Again, armies have now grown accustomed to rely largely on air-craft reconnaissance for accurate information of the enemy ; but the effective performance of this service is materially influenced by wind and weather.

The deadly accuracy, range and quick-firing capabilities of the modern rifle and machine gun require that a fire-swept zone be crossed in the shortest possible space of time by attacking troops. But if men are detained under the enemy's fire by the difficulty of emerging from a water-logged

trench, and by the necessity of passing over ground knee-deep in holding mud and slush, such attacks become practically prohibitive owing to the losses they entail.

During the exigencies of the heavy fighting which ended in the last week of November the French and British Forces had become somewhat mixed up, entailing a certain amount of difficulty in matters of supply and in securing unity of command.

By the end of November I was able to concentrate the Army under my command in one area, and, by holding a shorter line, to establish effective reserves.

By the beginning of December there was a considerable falling off in the volume of artillery fire directed against our front by the enemy. Reconnaissance and reports showed that a certain amount of artillery had been withdrawn. We judged that the cavalry in our front, with the exception of one Division of the Guard, had disappeared.

There did not, however, appear to have been any great diminution in the numbers of infantry holding the trenches.

III. Although both artillery and rifle fire were exchanged with the enemy every day, and sniping went on more or less continuously during the hours of daylight, the operations which call for special record or comment are comparatively few.

During the last week in November some successful minor night operations were carried out in the 4th corps.

On the night of the 23rd-24th November a small party of the 2nd Lincolnshire Regiment, under Lieutenant E. H. Impey, cleared three of the enemy's advanced trenches opposite the 25th Brigade and withdrew without loss.

On the night of the 24th-25th Captain J. R. Minshall Ford, Royal Welsh Fusiliers, and Lieutenant E. L. Morris, Royal Engineers, with 15 men of the Royal Engineers and Royal Welsh Fusiliers, successfully mined and blew up a group of farms immediately in front of the German trenches on the Touquet-Bridoux Road which had been used by German snipers.

On the night of the 26th-27th November a small party of the 2nd Scots Guards, under Lieutenant Sir E. H. W. Hulse, Bart., rushed the trenches opposite the 20th Brigade; and after pouring a heavy fire into them returned with useful information as to the strength of the Germans and the position of machine guns.

The trenches opposite the 25th Brigade were rushed the same night by a patrol of the 2nd Rifle Brigade, under Lieutenant E. Durham.

On the 23rd November the 112th Regiment of the 14th German Army Corps succeeded in capturing some 800 yards of the trenches held by the Indian Corps, but the General Officer Commanding the Meerut Division organised a powerful counter-attack, which lasted throughout the night. At daybreak on the 24th November the line was entirely re-established.

The operation was a costly one, involving many casualties, but the enemy suffered far more heavily.

We captured over 100 prisoners, including 3 officers, as well as 3 machine guns and 2 trench mortars.

On December 7th the concentration of the Indian Corps was completed by the arrival of the Sirhind Brigade from Egypt.

On December 9th the enemy attempted to commence a strong attack against the 3rd Corps, particularly in front of the trenches held by the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders and the Middlesex Regiment.

They were driven back with heavy loss, and did not renew the attempt. Our casualties were very slight.

During the early days of December certain indications along the whole front of the Allied Line induced the French Commanders and myself to believe that the enemy had withdrawn considerable forces from the Western Theatre.

Arrangements were made with the Commander of the 8th French Army for an attack to be commenced on the morning of December 14th.

Operations began at 7 A.M. by a combined heavy artillery bombardment by the two French and the 2nd British Corps.

The British objectives were the Petit Bois and the Maedelsteed Spur, lying respectively to the west and south-west of the village of Wytschaete.

At 7.45 A.M. the Royal Scots, with great dash, rushed forward and attacked the former, while the Gordon Highlanders attacked the latter place.

The Royal Scots, commanded by Major F. J. Duncan, D.S.O., in face of a terrible machine-gun and rifle fire, carried the German trench on the west edge of the Petit Bois, capturing 2 machine guns and 53 prisoners, including 1 officer.

The Gordon Highlanders, with great gallantry, advanced up the Maedelsteed Spur, forcing the enemy to evacuate their front trench. They were, however, losing heavily, and found themselves unable to get any farther. At nightfall they were obliged to fall back to their original position.

Captain C. Boddam-Whetham and Lieutenant W. F. R. Dobie showed splendid dash, and with a few men entered the enemy's leading trenches; but they were all either killed or captured.

Lieutenant G. R. V. Hume-Gore and Lieutenant W. H. Paterson also distinguished themselves by their gallant leading.

Although not successful, the operation was most creditable to the fighting spirit of the Gordon Highlanders, most ably commanded by Major A. W. F. Baird, D.S.O.

As the 32nd French Division on the left had been unable to make any progress, the further advance of our infantry into the Wytschaete Wood was not practicable.

Possession of the western edge of the Petit Bois was, however, retained.

The ground was devoid of cover and so water-logged that a rapid advance was impossible, the men sinking deep in the mud at every step they took.

The artillery throughout the day was very skilfully handled by the C.R.A.'s of the 3rd, 4th, and 5th Divisions: Major-General F. D. V. Wing, C.B., Brigadier-General G. F. Milne, C.B., D.S.O., and Brigadier-General J. E. W. Headlam, C.B., D.S.O.

The casualties during the day were about 17 officers and 407 other ranks. The losses of the enemy were very considerable, large numbers of dead being found in the Petit Bois and also in the communicating trenches in front of the Gordon Highlanders, in one of which a hundred were counted by a night patrol.

On this day the artillery of the 4th Division, 3rd Corps, was used in

support of the attack, under orders of the General Officer Commanding 2nd Corps.

The remainder of the 3rd Corps made demonstrations against the enemy with a view to preventing him from detaching troops to the area of operations of the 2nd Corps.

From the 15th to the 17th December the offensive operations which were commenced on the 14th were continued, but were confined chiefly to artillery bombardment.

The infantry advance against Wytschaete Wood was not practicable until the French on our left could make some progress to afford protection to that flank.

On the 17th it was agreed that the plan of attack as arranged should be modified; but I was requested to continue demonstrations along my line in order to assist and support certain French operations which were being conducted elsewhere.

IV. In his desire to act with energy up to his instructions to demonstrate and occupy the enemy, the General Officer Commanding the Indian Corps decided to take the advantage of what appeared to him a favourable opportunity to launch attacks against the advanced trenches in his front on the 18th and 19th December.

The attack of the Meerut Division on the left was made on the morning of the 19th with energy and determination, and was at first attended with considerable success, the enemy's advanced trenches being captured. Later on, however, a counter-attack drove them back to their original position with considerable loss.

The attack of the Lahore Division commenced at 4.30 A.M. It was carried out by two companies each of the 1st Highland Light Infantry and the 1st Battalion 4th Gurkha Rifles, of the Sirhind Brigade, under Lieutenant-Colonel R. W. H. Ronaldson. This attack was completely successful, two lines of the enemy's trenches being captured with little loss.

Before daylight the captured trenches were filled with as many men as they would hold. The front was very restricted, communication to the rear impossible.

At daybreak it was found that the position was practically untenable. Both flanks were in the air, and a supporting attack, which was late in starting, and, therefore, conducted during daylight, failed; although attempted with the greatest gallantry and resolution.

Lieutenant-Colonel Ronaldson held on till dusk, when the whole of the captured trenches had to be evacuated, and the detachment fell back to its original line.

By the night of the 19th December nearly all the ground gained during the day had been lost.

From daylight on the 20th December the enemy commenced a heavy fire from artillery and trench mortars on the whole front of the Indian Corps. This was followed by infantry attacks, which were in especial force against Givenchy, and between that place and La Quinque Rue.

At about 10 A.M. the enemy succeeded in driving back the Sirhind Brigade, and capturing a considerable part of Givenchy, but the 57th Rifles and 9th Bhopals, north of the canal, and the Connaught Rangers, south of it, stood firm.

The 15th Sikhs of the Divisional Reserve were already supporting the Sirhind Brigade. On the news of the retirement of the latter being received, the 47th Sikhs were also sent up to reinforce General Brunker.

The 1st Manchester Regiment, 4th Suffolk Regiment, and two battalions of French Territorials under General Carnegy were ordered to launch a vigorous counter-attack from Pont Fixe through Givenchy to retake by a flank attack the trenches lost by the Sirhind Brigade.

Orders were sent to General Carnegy to divert his attack on Givenchy Village, and to re-establish the situation there.

A battalion of the 58th French Division was sent to Annequin in support.

About 5 P.M. a gallant attack by the 1st Manchester Regiment and one company of the 4th Suffolk Regiment had captured Givenchy, and had cleared the enemy out of the two lines of trenches to the north-east. To the east of the village the 9th Bhopal Infantry and 57th Rifles had maintained their positions, but the enemy were still in possession of our trenches to the north of the village.

General Macbean, with the Secunderabad Cavalry Brigade, 2nd Battalion 8th Gurkha Rifles, and the 47th Sikhs, was sent up to support General Brunker, who at 2 P.M. directed General Macbean to move to a position of readiness in the second line trenches from Maris northward, and to counter attack vigorously if opportunity offered.

Some considerable delay appears to have occurred, and it was not until 1 A.M. on the 21st that the 47th Sikhs and the 7th Dragoon Guards under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel H. A. Lempriere, D.S.O., of the latter regiment, were launched in counter-attack.

They reached the enemy's trenches, but were driven out by enfilade fire, their gallant Commander being killed.

The main attack by the remainder of General Macbean's force, with the remnants of Lieutenant-Colonel Lempriere's detachment (which had again been rallied), was finally pushed in at about 4.30 A.M., and also failed.

In the northern section of the defensive line the retirement of the 2nd Battalion 2nd Gurkha Rifles, at about 10 A.M. on the 20th, had left the flank of the 1st Seaforth Highlanders, on the extreme right of the Meerut Division line, much exposed. This battalion was left shortly afterwards completely in the air by the retirement of the Sirhind Brigade.

The 58th Rifles, therefore, were ordered to support the left of the Seaforth Highlanders, to fill the gap created by the retirement of the Gurkhas.

During the whole of the afternoon strenuous efforts were made by the Seaforth Highlanders to clear the trenches to their right and left. The 1st Battalion 9th Gurkha Rifles, reinforced the 2nd Gurkhas near the orchard where the Germans were in occupation of the trenches abandoned by the latter regiment. The Garhwal Brigade was being very heavily attacked, and their trenches and loopholes were much damaged; but the brigade continued to hold its front and attack, connecting with the 6th Jats on the left of the Dehra Dun Brigade.

No advance in force was made by the enemy, but the troops were pinned to their ground by heavy artillery fire, the Seaforth Highlanders especially suffering heavily.

Shortly before nightfall the 2nd Royal Highlanders on the right of the Seaforth Highlanders had succeeded in establishing touch with the Sirhind

Brigade ; and the continuous line (though dented near the orchard) existed throughout the Meerut Division.

Early in the afternoon of December 20th orders were sent to the 1st Corps, which was then in general army reserve, to send an infantry brigade to support the Indian Corps.

The 1st Brigade was ordered to Bethune, and reached that place at midnight on 20th-21st December. Later in the day Sir Douglas Haig was ordered to move the whole of the 1st Division in support of the Indian Corps.

The 3rd Brigade reached Bethune between 8 A.M. and 9 A.M. on the 21st, and on the same date the 2nd Brigade arrived at Lacon at 1 P.M.

The 1st Brigade was directed on Givenchy, *via* Pont Fixe, and the 3rd Brigade, through Gorre, on the trenches evacuated by the Sirhind Brigade.

The 2nd Brigade was directed to support ; the Dehra Dun Brigade being placed at the disposal of the General Officer Commanding Meerut Division.

At 1 P.M. the General Officer Commanding 1st Division directed the 1st Brigade in attack from the west of Givenchy in a north-easterly direction, and the 3rd Brigade from Festubert in an east-north-easterly direction, the object being to pass the position originally held by us and to capture the German trenches 400 yards to the east of it.

By 5 P.M. the 1st Brigade had obtained a hold in Givenchy, and the ground south as far as the canal ; and the 3rd Brigade had progressed to a point half a mile west of Festubert.

By nightfall the 1st South Wales Borderers and the 2nd Welsh Regiment of the 3rd Brigade had made a lodgment in the original trenches to the north-east of Festubert, the 1st Gloucestershire Regiment continuing the line southward along the track east of Festubert.

The 1st Brigade had established itself on the east side of Givenchy.

By 3 P.M. the 3rd Brigade was concentrated at Le Touret, and was ordered to retake the trenches which had been lost by the Dehra Dun Brigade.

By 10 P.M. the support trenches west of the orchard had been carried, but the original fire trenches had been so completely destroyed that they could not be occupied.

This operation was performed by the 1st Loyal North Lancashire Regiment and the 1st Northamptonshire Regiment, supported by the 2nd King's Royal Rifle Corps, in reserve.

Throughout this day the units of the Indian Corps rendered all the assistance and support they could in view of their exhausted condition.

At 1 P.M. on the 22nd Sir Douglas Haig took over command from Sir James Willcocks. The situation in the front line was then approximately as follows :—

South of the La Bassée Canal the Connaught Rangers of the Ferozepore Brigade had not been attacked. North of the canal a short length of our original line was still held by the 9th Bhopals and the 57th Rifles of the same brigade. Connecting with the latter was the 1st Brigade holding the village of Givenchy and its eastern and northern approaches. On the left of the 1st Brigade was the 3rd Brigade. Touch had been lost between the left of the former and the right of the latter. The 3rd Brigade held a line

along, and in places advanced to, the east of the Festubert Road. Its left was in communication with the right of the Meerut Division line, where troops of the 2nd Brigade had just relieved the 1st Seaforth Highlanders. To the north, units of the 2nd Brigade held an indented line west of the orchard, connecting with half of the 2nd Royal Highlanders, half of the 41st Dogras and the 1st Battalion 9th Gurkha Rifles. From this point to the north the 6th Jats and the whole of the Garhwal Brigade occupied the original line which they had held from the commencement of the operations.

The relief of most units of the southern sector was effected on the night of 22nd December. The Meerut Division remained under the orders of the 1st Corps, and was not completely withdrawn until the 27th December.

In the evening the position at Givenchy was practically re-established, and the 3rd Brigade had re-occupied the old line of trenches.

During the 23rd the enemy's activities ceased, and the whole position was restored to very much its original condition.

In my last despatch I had occasion to mention the prompt and ready help I received from the Lahore Division, under the command of Major-General H. B. B. Watkis, C.B., which was thrown into action immediately on arrival, when the British Forces were very hard pressed during the battle of Ypres-Armentières.

The Indian troops have fought with the utmost steadfastness and gallantry whenever they have been called upon.

Weather conditions were abnormally bad, the snow and floods precluding any active operations during the first three weeks of January.

V. At 7.30 A.M. on the 25th January, the enemy began to shell Bethune, and at 8 A.M. a strong hostile infantry attack developed south of the canal, preceded by a heavy bombardment of artillery, minenwerfers and, possibly, the explosion of mines, though the latter is doubtful.

The British line south of the canal formed a pronounced salient from the canal on the left, thence running forward toward the railway triangle and back to the main La Bassée-Bethune Road, where it joined the French. This line was occupied by half a battalion of the Scots Guards, and half a battalion of the Coldstream Guards, of the 1st Infantry Brigade. The trenches in the salient were blown in almost at once; and the enemy's attack penetrated this line. Our troops retired to a partially prepared second line, running approximately due north and south from the canal to the road, some 500 yards west of the railway triangle. This second line had been strengthened by the construction of a keep half way between the canal and the road. Here the other two half battalions of the above-mentioned regiments were in support.

These supports held up the enemy, who, however, managed to establish himself in the brick stacks and some communication trenches between the keep, the road and the canal—and even beyond and west of the keep on either side of it.

The London Scottish had in the meantime been sent up in support and a counter-attack was organised with the 1st Royal Highlanders, part of the 1st Cameron Highlanders, and the 2nd King's Royal Rifle Corps, the latter regiment having been sent forward from the Divisional Reserve.

The counter-attack was delayed in order to synchronise with a counter-attack north of the canal which was arranged for 1 P.M.

At 1 P.M. these troops moved forward, their flanks making good progress near the road and the canal, but their centre being held up. The 2nd Royal Sussex Regiment was then sent forward, late in the afternoon, to reinforce. The result was that the Germans were driven back far enough to enable a somewhat broken line to be taken up, running from the culvert on the railway, almost due south to the keep, and thence south-east to the main road.

The French left near the road had also been attacked and driven back a little, but not to so great an extent as the British right. Consequently, the French left was in advance of the British right and exposed to a possible flank attack from the north.

The Germans did not, however, persevere further in their attack.

The above-mentioned line was strengthened during the night, and the 1st Guards Brigade, which had suffered severely, was withdrawn into reserve and replaced by the 2nd Infantry Brigade.

While this was taking place another, and equally severe, attack was delivered north of the canal against the village of Givenchy.

At 8.15 A.M., after a heavy artillery bombardment with high explosive shells, the enemy's infantry advanced under the effective fire of our artillery, which, however, was hampered by the constant interruption of telephonic communication between the observers and batteries. Nevertheless, our artillery fire, combined with that of the infantry in the fire trenches, had the effect of driving the enemy from his original direction of advance, with the result that his troops crowded together on the north-east corner of the village and broke through into the centre of the village as far as the keep, which had been previously put in a state of defence. The Germans had lost heavily, and a well-timed local counter-attack, delivered by the reserves of the 2nd Welsh Regiment and 1st South Wales Borderers, and by a company of the 1st Royal Highlanders (lent by the 1st Brigade as a working party—this company was at work on the keep at the time), was completely successful, with the result that, after about an hour's street fighting, all who had broken into the village were either captured or killed; and the original line round the village was re-established by noon.

South of the village, however, and close to the canal, the right of the 2nd Royal Munster Fusiliers fell back in conformity with the troops south of the canal; but after dark that regiment moved forward and occupied the old line.

During the course of the attack on Givenchy the enemy made five assaults on the salient at the north-east of the village about French Farm, but was repulsed every time with heavy loss.

VI. On the morning of the 29th January attacks were made on the right of the 1st Corps, south of the canal in the neighbourhood of La Bassée.

The enemy (part of the 14th German Corps), after a severe shelling, made a violent attack with scaling ladders on the keep, also to the north and south of it. In the keep and on the north side the Sussex Regiment held the enemy off, inflicting on him serious losses. On the south side the hostile infantry succeeded in reaching the Northamptonshire Regiment's trenches; but were immediately counter-attacked and all killed. Our artillery co-operated well with the infantry in repelling the attack.

In this action our casualties were inconsiderable, but the enemy lost severely, more than 200 of his killed alone being left in front of our position.

VII. On the 1st February a fine piece of work was carried out by the 4th Brigade in the neighbourhood of Cuinchy.

Some of the 2nd Coldstream Guards were driven from their trenches at 2.30 A.M., but made a stand some twenty yards east of them in a position which they held till morning.

A counter-attack, launched at 3.15 A.M. by one company of the Irish Guards and half a company of the 2nd Coldstream Guards, proved unsuccessful, owing to heavy rifle fire from the east and south.

At 10.5 A.M., acting under orders of the 1st Division, a heavy bombardment was opened on the lost ground for ten minutes; and this was followed immediately by an assault by about 50 men of the 2nd Coldstream Guards with bayonets, led by Captain A. Leigh Bennett, followed by 30 men of the Irish Guards, led by Second Lieutenant F. F. Graham, also with bayonets. These were followed by a party of Royal Engineers with sand-bags and wire.

All the ground which had been lost was brilliantly retaken; the 2nd Coldstream Guards also taking another German trench and capturing two machine guns.

Thirty-two prisoners fell into our hands.

The General Officer Commanding 1st Division describes the preparation by the artillery as "splendid, the high explosive shells dropping in the exact spot with absolute precision."

In forwarding his report on this engagement, the General Officer Commanding First Army writes as follows:—

"Special credit is due—

"(i.) To Major-General Haking, Commanding 1st Division, for the prompt manner in which he arranged this counter-attack and for the general plan of action, which was crowned with success.

"(ii.) To the General Officer Commanding the 4th Brigade (Lord Cavan) for the thorough manner in which he carried out the orders of the General Officer Commanding the Division.

"(iii.) To the regimental officers, non-commissioned officers and men of the 2nd Coldstream Guards and Irish Guards, who, with indomitable pluck, stormed two sets of barricades, captured three German trenches, two machine guns, and killed or made prisoners many of the enemy."

VIII. During the period under report the Royal Flying Corps has again performed splendid service.

Although the weather was almost uniformly bad and the machines suffered from constant exposure, there have been only thirteen days on which no actual reconnaissance has been effected. Approximately, one hundred thousand miles have been flown.

In addition to the daily and constant work of reconnaissance and co-operation with the artillery, a number of aerial combats have been fought, raids carried out, detrainments harassed, parks and petrol depôts bombed, etc.

Various successful bomb-dropping raids have been carried out, usually against the enemy's air-craft material. The principle of attacking hostile air-craft whenever and wherever seen (unless highly important information

is being delivered) has been adhered to, and has resulted in the moral fact that enemy machines invariably beat immediate retreat when chased.

Five German aeroplanes are known to have been brought to the ground, and it would appear probable that others, though they have managed to reach their own lines, have done so in a considerably damaged condition.

IX. In my despatch of 20th November, 1914, I referred to the reinforcements of Territorial Troops which I had received, and I mentioned several units which had already been employed in the fighting line.

In the positions which I held for some years before the outbreak of this war I was brought into close contact with the Territorial Force, and I found every reason to hope and believe that, when the hour of trial arrived, they would justify every hope and trust which was placed in them.

The Lords-Lieutenant of Counties and the Associations which worked under them bestowed a vast amount of labour and energy on the organisation of the Territorial Force; and I trust it may be some recompense to them to know that I, and the principal Commanders serving under me, consider that the Territorial Force has far more than justified the most sanguine hopes that any of us ventured to entertain of their value and use in the field. Commanders of Cavalry Divisions are unstinted in their praise of the manner in which the Yeomanry regiments attached to their brigades have done their duty, both in and out of action. The service of Divisional Cavalry is now almost entirely performed by Yeomanry, and Divisional Commanders report that they are very efficient.

Army Corps Commanders are loud in their praise of the Territorial Battalions which form part of nearly all the brigades at the front in the first line, and more than one of them have told me that these battalions are fast approaching—if they have not already reached—the standard of efficiency of Regular Infantry.

I wish to add a word about the Officers' Training Corps. The presence of the Artists' Rifles (28th Battalion, The London Regiment) with the Army in France enabled me also to test the value of this organisation.

Having had some experience in peace of the working of the Officers' Training Corps, I determined to turn the Artists' Rifles (which formed part of the Officers' Training Corps in peace time) to its legitimate use. I therefore established the battalion as a Training Corps for Officers in the field.

The cadets pass through a course, which includes some thoroughly practical training, as all cadets do a tour of forty-eight hours in the trenches, and afterwards write a report on what they see and notice. They also visit an observation post of a battery or group of batteries, and spend some hours there.

A Commandant has been appointed, and he arranges and supervises the work, sets schemes for practice, administers the school, delivers lectures, and reports on the candidates.

The cadets are instructed in all branches of military training suitable for platoon commanders.

Machine-gun tactics, a knowledge of which is so necessary for all junior officers, is a special feature of the course of instruction.

When first started the school was able to turn out Officers at the rate of 75 a month. This has since been increased to 100.

Reports received from Divisional and Army Corps Commanders on officers who have been trained at the school are most satisfactory.

X. Since the date of my last report I have been able to make a close personal inspection of all the units in the command. I was most favourably impressed by all I saw.

The troops composing the Army in France have been subjected to as severe a trial as it is possible to impose upon any body of men. The desperate fighting described in my last despatch had hardly been brought to a conclusion when they were called upon to face the rigours and hardships of a winter campaign. Frost and snow have alternated with periods of continuous rain.

The men have been called upon to stand for many hours together almost up to their waists in bitterly cold water, only separated by one or two hundred yards from a most vigilant enemy.

Although every measure which science and medical knowledge could suggest to mitigate these hardships was employed, the sufferings of the men have been very great.

In spite of all this they presented, at the inspections to which I have referred, a most soldier-like, splendid, though somewhat war-worn appearance. Their spirit remains high and confident; their general health is excellent, and their condition most satisfactory.

I regard it as most unfortunate that circumstances have prevented any account of many splendid instances of courage and endurance, in the face of almost unparalleled hardship and fatigue in war, coming regularly to the knowledge of the public.

Reinforcements have arrived from England with remarkable promptitude and rapidity. They have been speedily drafted into the ranks, and most of the units I inspected were nearly complete when I saw them. In appearance and quality the drafts sent out have exceeded my most sanguine expectations, and I consider the Army in France is much indebted to the Adjutant-General's Department at the War Office for the efficient manner in which its requirements have been met in this most essential respect.

With regard to these inspections, I may mention in particular the fine appearance presented by the 27th and 28th Divisions, composed principally of battalions which had come from India. Included in the former division was the Princess Patricia's Royal Canadian Regiment. They are a magnificent set of men, and have since done excellent work in the trenches.

It was some three weeks after the events recorded in paragraph 4 that I made my inspection of the Indian Corps, under Sir James Willcocks. The appearance they presented was most satisfactory, and fully confirmed my first opinion that the Indian troops only required rest, and a little acclimatising, to bring out all their fine inherent fighting qualities.

I saw the whole of the Indian Cavalry Corps, under Lieutenant-General Rimington, on a mounted parade soon after their arrival. They are a magnificent body of cavalry, and will, I feel sure, give the best possible account of themselves when called upon.

In the meantime, at their own particular request, they have taken their turn in the trenches and performed most useful and valuable service.

XI. The Rt. Rev. Bishop Taylor Smith, C.V.O., D.D., Chaplain-General

to the Forces, arrived at my Headquarters on 6th January, on a tour of inspection throughout the command.

The Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster has also visited most of the Irish Regiments at the front and the principal centres on the line of communications.

In a quiet and unostentatious manner the chaplains of all denominations have worked with devotion and energy in their respective spheres.

The number with the forces in the field at the commencement of the war was comparatively small, but towards the end of last year the Rev. J. M. Simms, D.D., K.H.C., Principal Chaplain, assisted by his Secretary, the Rev. W. Drury, reorganised the branch, and placed the spiritual welfare of the soldier on a more satisfactory footing. It is hoped that the further increase of *personnel* may be found possible.

I cannot speak too highly of the devoted manner in which all chaplains, whether with the troops in the trenches, or in attendance on the sick and wounded in casualty clearing stations and hospitals on the line of communications, have worked throughout the campaign.

Since the commencement of hostilities the work of the Royal Army Medical Corps has been carried out with untiring zeal, skill and devotion. Whether at the front under conditions such as obtained during the fighting on the Aisne, when casualties were heavy and accommodation for their reception had to be improvised, or on the line of communications, where an average of some 11,000 patients have been daily under treatment, the organisation of the Medical Services has always been equal to the demands made upon it.

The careful system of sanitation introduced into the Army has, with the assistance of other measures, kept the troops free from any epidemic, in support of which it is to be noticed that since the commencement of the war some 500 cases only of enteric have occurred.

The organisation for the first time in war of Motor Ambulance Convoys is due to the initiative and organising powers of Surgeon-General T. J. O'Donnell, D.S.O., ably assisted by Major P. Evans, Royal Army Medical Corps.

Two of these convoys, composed entirely of Red Cross Society *personnel*, have done excellent work under the superintendence of Regular Medical Officers.

Twelve Hospital Trains ply between the front and the various bases. I have visited several of the trains when halted in stations, and have found them conducted with great comfort and efficiency.

During the more recent phase of the campaign the creation of Rest Depôts at the front has materially reduced the wastage of men to the line of communications.

Since the latter part of October, 1914, the whole of the medical arrangements have been in the hands of Surgeon-General Sir A. T. Sloggett, C.M.G., K.H.S., under whom Surgeon-General T. P. Woodhouse and Surgeon-General T. J. O'Donnell have been responsible for the organisation on the line of communications and at the front respectively.

XII. The exceptional and peculiar conditions brought about by the weather have caused large demands to be made upon the resources and skill of the Royal Engineers.

Every kind of expedient has had to be thought out and adopted to keep the lines of trenches and defence work effective.

The Royal Engineers have shown themselves as capable of overcoming the ravages caused by violent rain and floods as they have been throughout in neutralising the effect of the enemy's artillery.

In this connexion I wish particularly to mention the excellent services performed by my Chief Engineer, Brigadier-General G. H. Fowke, who has been indefatigable in supervising all such work. His ingenuity and skill have been most valuable in the local construction of the various expedients which experience has shown to be necessary in prolonged trench warfare.

XIII. I have no reason to modify in any material degree my views of the general military situation, as expressed in my despatch of November 20th, 1914.

XIV. I have once more gratefully to acknowledge the valuable help and support I have received throughout this period from General Foch, General D'Urbal, and General Maud'huy of the French Army.

I have the honour to be

Your Lordship's most obedient Servant,

J. D. P. FRENCH,
*Field-Marshal,
Commanding-in-Chief,
The British Army in the Field.*

DESPATCH RECEIVED BY THE ADMIRALTY FROM VICE-ADMIRAL SIR F. C. DOVETON-STURDEE, K.C.B., C.V.O., C.M.G., REPORTING THE ACTION OFF THE FALKLAND ISLANDS ON TUESDAY, DECEMBER 8, 1914. PUBLISHED MARCH 3.

*INVINCIBLE AT SEA,
December 19th, 1914.*

SIR,

I have the honour to forward a report on the action which took place on 8th December, 1914, against a German Squadron off the Falkland Islands.

I have the honour to be, Sir,

Your obedient Servant,

F. C. D. STURDEE,
Vice-Admiral, Commander-in-Chief.

THE SECRETARY, ADMIRALTY.

(A) PRELIMINARY MOVEMENTS.

The Squadron, consisting of H.M. ships *Invincible*, flying my flag, Flag Captain Percy T. H. Beamish; *Inflexible*, Captain Richard F. Phillimore; *Carnarvon*, flying the flag of Rear-Admiral Archibald P. Stoddart, Flag Captain Harry L. d'E. Skipwith; *Cornwall*, Captain Walter M. Ellerton; *Kent*, Captain John D. Allen; *Glasgow*, Captain John Luce; *Bristol*, Captain Basil H. Fanshawe; and *Macedonia*, Captain Bertram S. Evans; arrived at Port Stanley, Falkland Islands, at 10.30 A.M. on Monday, the 7th December, 1914. Coaling was commenced at once, in order that the ships should be ready to resume the search for the enemy's squadron the next evening, the 8th December.

At 8 A.M. on Tuesday, the 8th December, a signal was received from the signal station on shore :—

“A four-funnel and two-funnel man-of-war in sight from Sapper Hill, steering northwards.”

At this time, the positions of the various ships of the squadron were as follows :—

Macedonia : At anchor as look-out ship.

Kent (guard ship) : At anchor in Port William.

Invincible and *Inflexible* : In Port William.

Carnarvon : In Port William.

Cornwall : In Port William.

Glasgow : In Port Stanley.

Bristol : In Port Stanley.

The *Kent* was at once ordered to weigh, and a general signal was made to raise steam for full speed.

At 8.20 A.M. the signal station reported another column of smoke in sight to the southward, and at 8.45 A.M. the *Kent* passed down the harbour and took up a station at the entrance.

The *Canopus*, Captain Heathcoat S. Grant, reported at 8.47 A.M. that the first two ships were 8 miles off, and that the smoke reported at 8.20 A.M. appeared to be the smoke of two ships about 20 miles off.

At 8.50 A.M. the signal station reported a further column of smoke in sight to the southward.

The *Macedonia* was ordered to weigh anchor on the inner side of the other ships, and await orders.

At 9.20 A.M. the two leading ships of the enemy (*Gneisenau* and *Nürnberg*), with guns trained on the wireless station, came within range of the *Canopus*, who opened fire at them across the low land at a range of 11,000 yards. The enemy at once hoisted their colours and turned away. At this time the masts and smoke of the enemy were visible from the upper bridge of the *Invincible* at a range of approximately 17,000 yards across the low land to the south of Port William.

A few minutes later the two cruisers altered course to port, as though to close the *Kent* at the entrance to the harbour, but about this time it seems that the *Invincible* and *Inflexible* were seen over the land, as the enemy at once altered course and increased speed to join their consorts.

The *Glasgow* weighed and proceeded at 9.40 A.M. with orders to join the *Kent* and observe the enemy's movements.

At 9.45 A.M. the squadron—less the *Bristol*—weighed, and proceeded out of harbour in the following order :—*Carnarvon*, *Inflexible*, *Invincible* and *Cornwall*. On passing Cape Pembroke Light, the five ships of the enemy appeared clearly in sight to the south-east, hull down. The visibility was at its maximum, the sea was calm, with a bright sun, a clear sky, and a light breeze from the north-west.

At 10.20 A.M. the signal for a general chase was made. The battle cruisers quickly passed ahead of the *Carnarvon* and overtook the *Kent*. The *Glasgow* was ordered to keep two miles from the *Invincible*, and the *Inflexible* was stationed on the starboard quarter of the flagship. Speed was eased to 20 knots at 11.15 A.M. to enable the other cruisers to get into station.

At this time the enemy's funnels and bridges showed just above the horizon.

Information was received from the *Bristol* at 11.27 A.M. that three enemy ships had appeared off Port Pleasant, probably colliers or transports. The *Bristol* was therefore directed to take the *Macedonia* under his orders and destroy transports.

The enemy were still maintaining their distance, and I decided, at 12.20 P.M., to attack with the two battle cruisers and the *Glasgow*.

At 12.47 P.M. the signal to "Open fire and engage the enemy" was made.

The *Inflexible* opened fire at 12.55 P.M. from her fore turret at the right-hand ship of the enemy, a light cruiser; a few minutes later the *Invincible* opened fire at the same ship.

The deliberate fire from a range of 16,500 to 15,000 yards at the right-hand light cruiser, who was dropping astern, became too threatening, and when a shell fell close alongside her at 1.20 P.M. she (the *Leipzig*) turned away, with the *Nürnberg* and *Dresden* to the south-west. These light cruisers were at once followed by the *Kent*, *Glasgow*, and *Cornwall*, in accordance with my instructions.

The action finally developed into three separate encounters, besides the subsidiary one dealing with the threatened landing.

(B) ACTION WITH THE ARMoured CRUISERS.

The fire of the battle cruisers was directed on the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau*. The effect of this was quickly seen, when at 1.25 P.M., with the *Scharnhorst* leading, they turned about 7 points to port in succession into line ahead, and opened fire at 1.30 P.M. Shortly afterwards speed was eased to 24 knots, and the battle cruisers were ordered to turn together, bringing them into line ahead, with the *Invincible* leading.

The range was about 13,500 yards at the final turn, and increased, until, at 2 P.M., it had reached 16,450 yards.

The enemy then (2.10 P.M.) turned away about 10 points to starboard and a second chase ensued, until, at 2.45 P.M., the battle cruisers again opened fire; this caused the enemy, at 2.53 P.M., to turn into line ahead to port, and open fire at 2.55 P.M.

The *Scharnhorst* caught fire forward, but not seriously, and her fire slackened perceptibly; the *Gneisenau* was badly hit by the *Inflexible*.

At 3.30 P.M. the *Scharnhorst* led round about 10 points to starboard; just previously her fire had slackened perceptibly, and one shell had shot away her third funnel; some guns were not firing, and it would appear that the turn was dictated by a desire to bring her starboard guns into action. The effect of the fire on the *Scharnhorst* became more and more apparent in consequence of smoke from fires, and also escaping steam; at times a shell would cause a large hole to appear in her side, through which could be seen a dull red glow of flame. At 4.4 P.M. the *Scharnhorst*, whose flag remained flying to the last, suddenly listed heavily to port, and within a minute it became clear that she was a doomed ship; for the list increased very rapidly until she lay on her beam ends, and at 4.17 P.M. she disappeared.

The *Gneisenau* passed on the far side of her late flagship, and continued a determined but ineffectual effort to fight the two battle cruisers.

At 5.8 P.M. the forward funnel was knocked over and remained resting against the second funnel. She was evidently in serious straits, and her fire slackened very much.

At 5.15 P.M. one of the *Gneisenau's* shells struck the *Invincible*; this was her last effective effort.

At 5.30 P.M. she turned towards the flagship with a heavy list to starboard, and appeared stopped, with steam pouring from her escape-pipes and smoke from shell and fires rising everywhere. About this time I ordered the signal "Cease fire," but before it was hoisted the *Gneisenau* opened fire again, and continued to fire from time to time with a single gun.

At 5.40 P.M. the three ships closed in on the *Gneisenau*, and, at this time, the flag flying at her fore truck was apparently hauled down, but the flag at the peak continued flying.

At 5.50 P.M. "Cease fire" was made.

At 6 P.M. the *Gneisenau* heeled over very suddenly, showing the men gathered on her decks and then walking on her side as she lay for a minute on her beam ends before sinking.

The prisoners of war from the *Gneisenau* report that, by the time the ammunition was expended, some 600 men had been killed and wounded.

The surviving officers and men were all ordered on deck and told to provide themselves with hammocks and any articles that could support them in the water.

When the ship capsized and sank there were probably some 200 unwounded survivors in the water, but, owing to the shock of the cold water, many were drowned within sight of the boats and ships.

Every effort was made to save life as quickly as possible, both by boats and from the ships; life-buoys were thrown and ropes lowered, but only a proportion could be rescued. The *Invincible* alone rescued 108 men, 14 of whom were found to be dead after being brought on board; these men were buried at sea the following day with full military honours.

(C) ACTION WITH THE LIGHT CRUISERS.

At about 1 P.M., when the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau* turned to port to engage the *Invincible* and *Inflexible*, the enemy's light cruisers turned to starboard to escape; the *Dresden* was leading, and the *Nürnberg* and *Leipzig* followed on each quarter.

In accordance with my instructions, the *Glasgow*, *Kent*, and *Cornwall* at once went in chase of these ships; the *Carnarvon*, whose speed was insufficient to overtake them, closed the battle cruisers.

The *Glasgow* drew well ahead of the *Cornwall* and *Kent*, and at 3 P.M. shots were exchanged with the *Leipzig* at 12,000 yards. The *Glasgow's* object was to endeavour to out-range the *Leipzig* with her 6-inch guns and thus cause her to alter course and give the *Cornwall* and *Kent* a chance of coming into action.

At 4.17 P.M. the *Cornwall* opened fire, also on the *Leipzig*.

At 7.17 P.M. the *Leipzig* was on fire fore and aft, and the *Cornwall* and *Glasgow* ceased fire.

The *Leipzig* turned over on her port side and disappeared at 9 P.M. Seven officers and eleven men were saved.

At 3.36 P.M. the *Cornwall* ordered the *Kent* to engage the *Nürnberg*, the nearest cruiser to her.

Owing to the excellent and strenuous efforts of the engine-room department, the *Kent* was able to get within range of the *Nürnberg* at 5 P.M. At 6.35 P.M. the *Nürnberg* was on fire forward and ceased firing. The *Kent* also ceased firing and closed to 3,300 yards; as the colours were still observed to be flying in the *Nürnberg*, the *Kent* opened fire again. Fire was finally stopped five minutes later on the colours being hauled down, and every preparation was made to save life. The *Nürnberg* sank at 7.27 P.M., and, as she sank, a group of men were waving a German ensign attached to a staff. Twelve men were rescued, but only seven survived.

The *Kent* had four killed and twelve wounded, mostly caused by one shell.

During the time the three cruisers were engaged with the *Nürnberg* and *Leipzig*, the *Dresden*, who was beyond her consorts, effected her escape owing to her superior speed. The *Glasgow* was the only cruiser with sufficient speed to have had any chance of success. However, she was fully employed in engaging the *Leipzig* for over an hour before either the *Cornwall* or *Kent* could come up and get within range. During this time the *Dresden* was able to increase her distance and get out of sight.

The weather changed after 4 P.M., and the visibility was much reduced; further, the sky was overcast and cloudy, thus assisting the *Dresden* to get away unobserved.

(D) ACTION WITH THE ENEMY'S TRANSPORTS.

A report was received at 11.27 A.M. from H.M.S. *Bristol* that three ships of the enemy, probably transports or colliers, had appeared off Port Pleasant. The *Bristol* was ordered to take the *Macedonia* under his orders and destroy the transports.

H.M.S. *Macedonia* reports that only two ships, steamships *Baden* and *Santa Isabel*, were present; both ships were sunk after the removal of the crew.

I have pleasure in reporting that the officers and men under my orders carried out their duties with admirable efficiency and coolness, and great credit is due to the Engineer officers of all the ships, several of which exceeded their normal full speed.

F. C. D. STURDEE.

DESPATCH RECEIVED BY THE ADMIRALTY FROM VICE-ADMIRAL SIR DAVID BEATTY, K.C.B., M.V.O., D.S.O., COMMANDING THE FIRST BATTLE CRUISER SQUADRON, REPORTING THE ACTION IN THE NORTH SEA ON SUNDAY, JANUARY 24, 1915. PUBLISHED MARCH 3.

H.M.S. *PRINCESS ROYAL*,

2nd February, 1915.

SIR,

I have the honour to report that at daybreak on 24th January, 1915, the following vessels were patrolling in company.

The battle cruisers *Lion*, Captain Alfred E.M. Chatfield, C.V.O., flying my flag; *Princess Royal*, Captain Osmond de B. Brock, Aide-de-Camp;

Tiger, Captain Henry B. Pelly, M.V.O.; *New Zealand*, Captain Lionel Halsey, C.M.G., Aide-de-Camp, flying the flag of Rear-Admiral Sir Archibald Moore, K.C.B., C.V.O.; and *Indomitable*, Captain Francis W. Kennedy.

The light cruisers *Southampton*, flying the broad pennant of Commodore William E. Goodenough, M.V.O.; *Nottingham*, Captain Charles B. Miller; *Birmingham*, Captain Arthur A. M. Duff; and *Lowestoft*, Captain Theobald W. B. Kennedy, were disposed on my port beam.

Commodore (T) Reginald Y. Tyrwhitt, C.B., in *Arethusa*; *Aurora*, Captain Wilmot S. Nicholson; *Undaunted*, Captain Francis G. St. John, M.V.O.; *Arethusa* and the destroyer flotillas were ahead.

At 7.25 A.M. the flash of guns was observed S.S.E. Shortly afterwards a report reached me from *Aurora* that she was engaged with enemy's ships. I immediately altered course to S.S.E., increased to 22 knots, and ordered the light cruisers and flotillas to chase S.S.E. to get in touch and report movements of enemy.

This order was acted upon with great promptitude, indeed my wishes had already been forestalled by the respective Senior Officers, and reports almost immediately followed from *Southampton*, *Arethusa*, and *Aurora*, as to the position and composition of the enemy, which consisted of 3 battle cruisers and *Blücher*, 6 light cruisers, and a number of destroyers, steering N.W. The enemy had altered course to S.E. From now onwards the light cruisers maintained touch with the enemy, and kept me fully informed as to their movements.

The battle cruisers worked up to full speed, steering to the southward. The wind at the time was N.E., light, with extreme visibility. At 7.30 A.M. the enemy were sighted on the port bow, steaming fast, steering approximately S.E., distant 14 miles.

Owing to the prompt reports received we had attained our position on the quarter of the enemy, and so altered course to S.E., parallel to them, and settled down to a long stern chase, gradually increasing our speed until we reached 28.5 knots. Great credit is due to the Engineer staffs of *New Zealand* and *Indomitable*—these ships greatly exceeded their normal speed.

At 8.52 A.M., as we had closed to within 20,000 yards of the rear ship, the battle cruisers manœuvred to keep on a line of bearing so that guns would bear, and *Lion* fired a single shot, which fell short. The enemy at this time were in single line ahead, with light cruisers ahead and a large number of destroyers on their starboard beam.

Single shots were fired at intervals to test the range, and at 9.9 A.M. *Lion* made her first hit on the *Blücher*, No. 4 in the line. The *Tiger* opened fire at 9.20 A.M. on the rear ship, the *Lion* shifted to No. 3 in the line, at 18,000 yards, this ship being hit by several salvoes. The enemy returned our fire at 9.14 A.M. *Princess Royal*, on coming into range, opened fire on *Blücher*, the range of the leading ship being 17,500 yards, at 9.35 A.M. *New Zealand* was within range of *Blücher*, which had dropped somewhat astern, and opened fire on her. *Princess Royal* shifted to the third ship in the line, inflicting considerable damage on her.

Our flotilla cruisers and destroyers had gradually dropped from a position broad on our beam to our port quarter, so as not to foul our range

with their smoke; but the enemy's destroyers threatening attack, the *Meteor* and M Division passed ahead of us, Captain the Hon. H. Meade, D.S.O., handling this Division with conspicuous ability.

About 9.45 A.M. the situation was as follows: *Blücher*, the fourth in their line, already showed signs of having suffered severely from gun-fire; their leading ship and No. 3 were also on fire. *Lion* was engaging No. 1, *Princess Royal* No. 3, *New Zealand* No. 4, while the *Tiger*, who was second in our line, fired first at their No. 1, and when interfered with by smoke, at their No. 4.

The enemy's destroyers emitted vast columns of smoke to screen their battle cruisers, and under cover of this the latter now appeared to have altered course to the northward to increase their distance, and certainly the rear ships hauled out on the port quarter of their leader, thereby increasing their distance from our line. The battle cruisers, therefore, were ordered to form a line of bearing N.N.W., and proceed at their utmost speed.

Their destroyers then showed evident signs of an attempt to attack. *Lion* and *Tiger* opened fire on them, and caused them to retire and resume their original course.

The light cruisers maintained an excellent position on the port quarter of the enemy's line, enabling them to observe and keep touch, or attack any vessel that might fall out of the line.

At 10.48 A.M. the *Blücher*, which had dropped considerably astern of enemy's line, hauled out to port, steering north with a heavy list on fire, and apparently in a defeated condition. I consequently ordered *Indomitable* to attack enemy breaking northward.

At 10.54 A.M. submarines were reported on the starboard bow, and I personally observed the wash of a periscope two points on our starboard bow. I immediately turned to port.

At 11.3 A.M. an injury to the *Lion* being reported as incapable of immediate repair, I directed *Lion* to shape course N.W. At 11.20 A.M. I called the *Attack* alongside, shifting my flag to her at about 11.35 A.M. I proceeded at utmost speed to rejoin the squadron, and met them at noon retiring N.N.W.

I boarded and hoisted my flag in *Princess Royal* at about 12.20 P.M., when Captain Brock acquainted me of what had occurred since the *Lion* fell out of the line, namely that *Blücher* had been sunk and that the enemy battle cruisers had continued their course to the eastward in a considerably damaged condition. He also informed me that a Zeppelin and a seaplane had endeavoured to drop bombs on the vessels which went to the rescue of the survivors of *Blücher*.

The good seamanship of Lieutenant-Commander Cyril Callaghan, H.M.S. *Attack*, in placing his vessel alongside the *Lion* and subsequently the *Princess Royal*, enabled the transfer of flag to be made in the shortest possible time.

At 2 P.M. I closed *Lion* and received a report that the starboard engine was giving trouble, owing to priming, and at 3.38 P.M. I ordered *Indomitable* to take her in tow, which was accomplished by 5 P.M.

The greatest credit is due to the Captains of *Indomitable* and *Lion* for the seamanlike manner in which the *Lion* was taken in tow under difficult circumstances.

The excellent steaming of the ships engaged in the operation was a conspicuous feature.

I attach an appendix giving the names of various officers and men who specially distinguished themselves.

Where all did well it is difficult to single out officers and men for special mention, and as *Lion* and *Tiger* were the only ships hit by the enemy, the majority of these I mention belong to those ships.

I have the honour to be, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

(Signed) DAVID BEATTY,
Vice-Admiral.

DESPATCH RECEIVED BY THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR WAR FROM THE
FIELD-MARSHAL COMMANDING-IN-CHIEF, THE BRITISH ARMY IN THE
FIELD.

GENERAL HEAD-QUARTERS,
5th April, 1915.

MY LORD,

I have the honour to report the operations of the Forces under my command since the date of my last despatch, 2nd February, 1915.

I. The event of chief interest and importance which has taken place is the victory achieved over the enemy at the Battle of Neuve Chapelle, which was fought on the 10th, 11th, and 12th of March. The main attack was delivered by troops of the First Army under the command of General Sir Douglas Haig, supported by a large force of Heavy Artillery, a Division of Cavalry, and some Infantry of the general reserve.

Secondary and holding attacks and demonstrations were made along the front of the Second Army under the direction of its Commander, General Sir Horace Smith-Dorrien.

Whilst the success attained was due to the magnificent bearing and indomitable courage displayed by the troops of the 4th and Indian Corps, I consider that the able and skilful dispositions which were made by the General Officer Commanding First Army contributed largely to the defeat of the enemy and to the capture of his position. The energy and vigour with which General Sir Douglas Haig handled his command show him to be a leader of great ability and power.

Another action of considerable importance was brought about by a surprise attack of the Germans made on the 14th March against the 27th Division holding the trenches east of St. Eloi. A large force of artillery was concentrated in this area under cover of mist, and a heavy volume of fire was suddenly brought to bear on the trenches at 5 p.m. This artillery attack was accompanied by two mine explosions; and, in the confusion caused by these and the suddenness of the attack, the position of St. Eloi was captured and held for some hours by the enemy.

Well-directed and vigorous counter-attacks, in which the troops of the 5th Army Corps showed great bravery and determination, restored the situation by the evening of the 15th.

A more detailed account of these operations will appear in subsequent pages of this despatch.

II. On the 6th February a brilliant action by troops of the 1st Corps materially improved our position in the area south of the La Bassée Canal. During the previous night parties of Irish Guards and of the 3rd Battalion Coldstream Guards had succeeded in gaining ground whence converging fire could be directed on the flanks and rear of certain "brickstacks" occupied by the Germans, which had been for some time a source of considerable annoyance.

At 2 P.M. the affair commenced with a severe bombardment of the "brickstacks" and the enemy's trenches. A brisk attack by the 3rd Coldstream Guards and Irish Guards from our trenches west of the "brickstacks" followed, and was supported by fire from the flanking positions which had been seized the previous night by the same regiments. The attack succeeded, the "brickstacks" were occupied without difficulty, and a line established north and south through a point about forty yards east of the "brickstacks."

The casualties suffered by the 5th Corps throughout the period under review, and particularly during the month of February, have been heavier than those in other parts of the line. I regret this; but I do not think, taking all the circumstances into consideration, that they were unduly numerous. The position then occupied by the 5th Corps has always been a very vulnerable part of our line; the ground is marshy, and trenches are most difficult to construct and maintain. The 27th and 28th Divisions of the 5th Corps have had no previous experience of European warfare, and a number of the units composing it had only recently returned from service in tropical climates. In consequence, the hardships of a rigorous winter campaign fell with greater weight upon these Divisions than upon any other in the command.

Chiefly owing to these causes, the 5th Corps, up to the beginning of March, was constantly engaged in counter-attack to retake trenches and ground which had been lost.

In their difficult and arduous task, however, the troops displayed the utmost gallantry and devotion; and it is most creditable to the skill and energy of their leaders that I am able to report how well they have surmounted all their difficulties, that the ground first taken over by them is still intact, and held with little greater loss than is incurred by troops in all other parts of the line.

On the 14th February the 82nd Brigade of the 27th Division was driven from its trenches east of St. Eloi; but by 7 A.M. on the 15th all these trenches had been recaptured, fifteen prisoners taken, and sixty German dead counted in front of the trenches. Similarly in the 28th Division trenches were lost by the 85th Brigade and retaken the following night.

During the month of February the enemy made several attempts to get through all along the line, but he was invariably repulsed with loss. A particularly vigorous attempt was made on the 17th February against the trenches held by the Indian Corps, but it was brilliantly repulsed.

On February 28th a successful minor attack was made on the enemy's trenches near St. Eloi by small parties of the Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry. The attack was divided into three small groups, the whole under the command of Lieutenant Crabbe: No. 1 Group under Lieutenant

Papineau, No. 2 Group under Sergeant Patterson, and No. 3 Group under Company Sergeant-Major Lloyd.

The head of the party got within fifteen or twenty yards of the German trench and charged; it was dark at the time (about 5.15 A.M.).

Lieutenant Crabbe, who showed the greatest dash and *élan*, took his party over everything in the trench until they had gone down it about eighty yards, when they were stopped by a barricade of sandbags and timber. This party, as well as the others, then pulled down the front face of the German parapet. A number of Germans were killed and wounded, and a few prisoners were taken.

The services performed by this distinguished corps have continued to be very valuable since I had occasion to refer to them in my last despatch. They have been most ably organised, trained and commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel F. D. Farquhar, D.S.O., who, I deeply regret to say, was killed while superintending some trench work on the 20th March. His loss will be deeply felt.

A very gallant attack was made by the 4th Battalion of the King's Royal Rifle Corps of the 80th Brigade on the enemy's trenches in the early hours of March 2nd. The Battalion was led by Major Widdrington, who launched it at 12.30 A.M. (he himself being wounded during its progress), covered by an extremely accurate and effective artillery fire. About sixty yards of the enemy's trench were cleared, but the attack was brought to a standstill by a very strong barricade, in attempting to storm which several casualties were incurred.

III. During the month of February I arranged with General Foch to render the 9th French Corps, holding the trenches on my left, some much-needed rest by sending the three Divisions of the British Cavalry Corps to hold a portion of the French trenches, each Division for a period of ten days alternately.

It was very gratifying to me to note once again in this campaign the eager readiness which the Cavalry displayed to undertake a *rôle* which does not properly belong to them in order to support and assist their French comrades.

In carrying out this work leaders, officers, and men displayed the same skill and energy which I have had reason to comment upon in former despatches.

The time passed by the Cavalry in the French trenches was, on the whole, quiet and uneventful, but there are one or two incidents calling for remark.

At about 1.45 A.M. on 16th February a half-hearted attack was made against the right of the line held by the 2nd Cavalry Division, but it was easily repulsed by rifle fire, and the enemy left several dead in front of the trenches. The attack was delivered against the second and third trenches from the right of the line of this Division.

At 6 A.M. on the 21st the enemy blew up one of the 2nd Cavalry Division trenches, held by the 16th Lancers, and some adjoining French trenches. The enemy occupied forty yards of our trench and tried to advance, but were stopped. An immediate counter-attack by the supporting squadron was stopped by machine-gun fire. The line was established opposite the gap, and a counter-attack by two squadrons and one company

of French reserve was ordered. At 5.30 P.M. 2nd Cavalry Division reported that the counter-attack did not succeed in retaking the trench blown in but that a new line had been established forty yards in rear of it, and that there was no further activity on the part of the enemy. At 10 P.M. the situation was unchanged.

The Commander of the Indian Cavalry Corps expressed a strong desire that the troops under his command should gain some experience in trench warfare. Arrangements were made, therefore, with the General Officer Commanding the Indian Corps, in pursuance of which the various units of the Indian Cavalry Corps have from time to time taken a turn in the trenches, and have thereby gained some valuable experience.

IV. About the end of February many vital considerations induced me to believe that a vigorous offensive movement by the Forces under my command should be planned and carried out at the earliest possible moment.

Amongst the more important reasons which convinced me of this necessity were: The general aspect of the Allied situation throughout Europe, and particularly the marked success of the Russian Army in repelling the violent onslaughts of Marshal von Hindenburg; the apparent weakening of the enemy in my front, and the necessity for assisting our Russian Allies to the utmost by holding as many hostile troops as possible in the Western Theatre; the efforts to this end which were being made by the French Forces at Arras and Champagne; and, perhaps the most weighty consideration of all, the need of fostering the offensive spirit in the troops under my command after the trying and possibly enervating experiences which they had gone through of a severe winter in the trenches.

In a former despatch I commented upon the difficulties and drawbacks which the winter weather in this climate imposes upon a vigorous offensive. Early in March these difficulties became greatly lessened by the drying up of the country and by spells of brighter weather.

I do not propose in this despatch to enter at length into the considerations which actuated me in deciding upon the plan, time, and place of my attack, but Your Lordship is fully aware of these.

As mentioned above, the main attack was carried out by units of the First Army, supported by troops of the Second Army and the general reserve.

The object of the main attack was to be the capture of the village of Neuve Chapelle and the enemy's position at that point, and the establishment of our line as far forward as possible to the east of that place.

The object, nature, and scope of the attack, and instructions for the conduct of the operation were communicated by me to Sir Douglas Haig in a secret memorandum dated 19th February.

The main topographical feature of this part of the theatre is a marked ridge which runs south-west from a point two miles south-west of Lille to the village of Fournes, whence two spurs run out, one due west to a height known as Haut Pommereau, the other following the line of the main road to Illies.

The buildings of the village of Neuve Chapelle run along the Rue du Bois-Fauquisart Road. There is a triangle of roads just north of the

village. This area consists of a few big houses, with walls, gardens, orchards, etc., and here, with the aid of numerous machine-guns, the enemy had established a strong post which flanked the approaches to the village.

The Bois du Biez, which lies roughly south-east of the village of Neuve Chapelle, influenced the course of this operation.

Full instructions as to assisting and supporting the attack were issued to the Second Army.

The battle opened at 7.30 A.M. on the 10th March by a powerful artillery bombardment of the enemy's position at Neuve Chapelle. The artillery bombardment had been well prepared and was most effective, except on the extreme northern portion of the front of attack.

At 8.5 A.M. the 23rd (left) and 25th (right) Brigades of the 8th Division assaulted the German trenches on the north-west of the village.

At the same hour the Garhwal Brigade of the Meerut Division, which occupied the position to the south of Neuve Chapelle, assaulted the German trenches in its front.

The Garhwal Brigade and the 25th Brigade carried the enemy's lines of entrenchments where the wire entanglements had been almost entirely swept away by our shrapnel fire. The 23rd Brigade, however, on the north-east, was held up by the wire entanglements, which were not sufficiently cut.

At 8.5 A.M. the artillery turned on to Neuve Chapelle, and at 8.35 A.M. the advance of the Infantry was continued.

The 25th and Garhwal Brigades pushed on eastward and north-eastward respectively, and succeeded in getting a footing in the village. The 23rd Brigade was still held up in front of the enemy's wire entanglements, and could not progress. Heavy losses were suffered, especially in the Middlesex Regiment and the Scottish Rifles. The progress, however, of the 25th Brigade into Neuve Chapelle immediately to the south of the 23rd Brigade had the effect of turning the southern flank of the enemy's defences in front of the 23rd Brigade.

This fact, combined with powerful artillery support, enabled the 23rd Brigade to get forward between 10 and 11 A.M., and by 11 A.M. the whole of the village of Neuve Chapelle and the roads leading northward and south-westward from the eastern end of that village were in our hands.

During this time our artillery completely cut off the village and the surrounding country from any German reinforcements which could be thrown into the fight to restore the situation by means of a curtain of shrapnel fire. Prisoners subsequently reported that all attempts at reinforcing the front line were checked.

Steps were at once taken to consolidate the position won.

Considerable delay occurred after the capture of the Neuve Chapelle position. The Infantry were greatly disorganised by the violent nature of the attack and by its passage through the enemy's trenches and the buildings of the village. It was necessary to get units to some extent together before pushing on. The telephonic communication being cut by the enemy's fire rendered communication between front and rear most difficult. The fact of the left of the 23rd Brigade having been held up had kept back the 8th Division, and had involved a portion of the 25th Brigade in fighting to

the north out of its proper direction of advance. All this required adjustment. An orchard held by the enemy north of Neuve Chapelle also threatened the flank of an advance towards the Aubers Ridge.

I am of opinion that this delay would not have occurred had the clearly expressed order of the General Officer Commanding First Army been more carefully observed.

The difficulties above enumerated might have been overcome at an earlier period of the day if the General Officer Commanding 4th Corps had been able to bring his reserve brigades more speedily into action.

As it was, the further advance did not commence before 3.30 P.M.

The 21st Brigade was able to form up in the open on the left without a shot being fired at it, thus showing that at the time the enemy's resistance had been paralysed. The Brigade pushed forward in the direction of Moulin Du Pietre.

At first it made good progress, but was subsequently held up by the machine-gun fire from the houses and from a defended work in the line of the German entrenchments opposite the right of the 22nd Brigade.

Farther to the south the 24th Brigade, which had been directed on Pietre, was similarly held up by machine-guns in the houses and trenches at the road junction six hundred yards north-west of Pietre.

The 25th Brigade, on the right of the 24th, was also held up by machine-guns from a bridge held by the Germans, over the River Des Layes, which is situated to the north-west of the Bois Du Biez.

Whilst two Brigades of the Meerut Division were establishing themselves on the new line, the Dehra Dun Brigade, supported by the Jullundur Brigade of the Lahore Division, moved to the attack of the Bois Du Biez, but were held up on the line of the River Des Layes by the German post at the bridge which enfiladed them and brought them to a standstill.

The defended bridge over the River Des Layes and its neighbourhood immediately assumed considerable importance. Whilst artillery fire was brought to bear, as far as circumstances would permit, on this point, Sir Douglas Haig directed the 1st Corps to despatch one or more battalions of the 1st Brigade in support of the troops attacking the bridge. Three battalions were thus sent to Richebourg St. Vaast. Darkness coming on, and the enemy having brought up reinforcements, no further progress could be made, and the Indian Corps and 4th Corps proceeded to consolidate the position they had gained.

Whilst the operations which I have thus briefly recorded were going on, the 1st Corps, in accordance with orders, delivered an attack in the morning from Givenchy, simultaneously with that against Neuve Chapelle; but, as the enemy's wire was insufficiently cut, very little progress could be made, and the troops at this point did little more than hold fast the Germans in front of them.

On the following day, March 11th, the attack was renewed by the 4th and Indian Corps, but it was soon seen that a further advance would be impossible until the artillery had dealt effectively with the various houses and defended localities which held up the troops along the entire front. Efforts were made to direct the artillery fire accordingly; but owing to the weather conditions, which did not permit of aerial observation, and the fact that nearly all the telephonic communications between the

artillery observers and their batteries had been cut, it was impossible to do so with sufficient accuracy. Even when our troops which were pressing forward occupied a house here and there, it was not possible to stop our artillery fire, and the Infantry had to be withdrawn.

The two principal points which barred the advance were the same as on the preceding day—namely, the enemy's position about Moulin de Pietre and at the bridge over the River des Layes.

On the 12th March the same unfavourable conditions as regards weather prevailed, and hampered artillery action.

Although the 4th and Indian Corps most gallantly attempted to capture the strongly fortified positions in their front, they were unable to maintain themselves, although they succeeded in holding them for some hours.

Operations on this day were chiefly remarkable for the violent counter-attacks, supported by artillery, which were delivered by the Germans, and the ease with which they were repulsed.

As most of the objects for which the operations had been undertaken had been attained and as there were reasons why I considered it inadvisable to continue the attack at that time, I directed Sir Douglas Haig on the night of the 12th to hold and consolidate the ground which had been gained by the 4th and Indian Corps, and to suspend further offensive operations for the present.

On the morning of the 12th I informed the General Officer Commanding 1st Army that he could call on the 2nd Cavalry Division, under General Gough, for immediate support in the event of the successes of the First Army opening up opportunities for its favourable employment. This Division and a Brigade of the North Midland Division, which was temporarily attached to it, was moved forward for this purpose.

The 5th Cavalry Brigade, under Sir Philip Chetwode, reached the Rue Bacquerot at 4 P.M. with a view to rendering immediate support; but he was informed by the General Officer Commanding 4th Corps that the situation was not so favourable as he had hoped it would be, and that no further action by the cavalry was advisable.

General Gough's command, therefore, retired to Estaires.

The artillery of all kinds was handled with the utmost energy and skill, and rendered invaluable support in the prosecution of the attack.

The losses during these three days' fighting were, I regret to say, very severe, numbering:—

190 officers and 2,337 other ranks, killed.

359 officers and 8,174 other ranks, wounded.

23 officers and 1,728 other ranks, missing.

But the results attained were, in my opinion, wide and far-reaching.

The enemy left several thousand dead on the battlefield which were seen and counted; and we have positive information that upwards of 12,000 wounded were removed to the north-east and east by train.

Thirty officers and 1,657 other ranks of the enemy were captured.

I can best express my estimate of this battle by quoting an extract from a Special Order of the day which I addressed to Sir Douglas Haig and the First Army at its conclusion:—

"I am anxious to express to you personally my warmest appreciation of the skilful manner in which you have carried out your orders, and my

fervent and most heartfelt appreciation of the magnificent gallantry and devoted, tenacious courage displayed by all ranks whom you have ably led to success and victory."

V. Some operations in the nature of holding attacks, carried out by troops of the Second Army, were instrumental in keeping the enemy in front of them occupied, and preventing reinforcements being sent from those portions of the front to the main point of attack.

At 12.30 A.M. on the 12th March the 17th Infantry Brigade of the 4th Division, 3rd Corps, engaged in an attack on the enemy which resulted in the capture of the village of L'Épinette and adjacent farms.

Supported by a brisk fire from the 18th Infantry Brigade, the 17th Infantry Brigade, detailed for the attack, assaulted in two columns converging, and obtained the first houses of the village without much loss. The remainder of the village was very heavily wired, and the enemy got away by means of communication trenches while our men were cutting through the wire.

The enemy suffered considerable loss; our casualties being five officers and thirty other ranks killed and wounded.

The result of this operation was that an advance of 300 yards was made on a front of half a mile.

All attempts to retake this position have been repulsed with heavy loss to the enemy.

The General Officer Commanding the Second Corps arranged for an attack on a part of the enemy's position to the south-west of the village of Wyttschaete which he had timed to commence at 10 A.M. on the 12th March. Owing to dense fog, the assault could not be made until 4 o'clock in the afternoon.

It was then commenced by the Wiltshire and Worcestershire Regiments, but was so hampered by the mist and the approach of darkness that nothing more was effected than holding the enemy to his ground.

The action of St. Eloi referred to in the first paragraph of this despatch commenced at 5 P.M. on the 14th March by a very heavy cannonade which was directed against our trenches in front of St. Eloi, the village itself, and the approaches to it. There is a large mound lying to the south-east of the village. When the artillery attack was at its height a mine was exploded under this mound, and a strong hostile infantry attack was immediately launched against the trenches and the mound.

Our artillery opened fire at once, as well as our infantry, and inflicted considerable losses on the enemy during their advance; but, chiefly owing to the explosion of the mine and the surprise of the overwhelming artillery attack, the enemy's infantry had penetrated the first line of trenches at some points. As a consequence the garrisons of other works which had successfully resisted the assault were enfiladed and forced to retire just before it turned dark.

A counter-attack was at once organised by the General Officer Commanding 82nd Brigade, under the orders of the General Officer Commanding 27th Division, who brought up a reserve brigade to support it.

The attack was launched at 2 A.M., and the 82nd Brigade succeeded in recapturing the portion of the village of St. Eloi which was in the hands of the enemy and a portion of the trenches east of it. At 3 A.M. the 80th

Brigade in support took more trenches to the east and west of the village.

The counter-attack, which was well carried out under difficult conditions, resulted in the recapture of all lost ground of material importance.

It is satisfactory to be able to record that, though the troops occupying the first line of trenches were at first overwhelmed, they afterwards behaved very gallantly in the counter-attack for the recovery of the lost ground; and the following units earned and received the special commendation of the Army Commander: The 2nd Royal Irish Fusiliers, the 2nd Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry, the 1st Leinster Regiment, the 4th Rifle Brigade, and the Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry.

A vigorous attack made by the enemy on the 17th to recapture these trenches was repulsed with great loss.

Throughout the period under review night enterprises by smaller or larger patrols, which were led with consummate skill and daring, have been very active along the whole line.

A moral superiority has thus been established, and valuable information has been collected.

I cannot speak too highly of the invincible courage and the remarkable resource displayed by these patrols.

The troops of the 3rd Corps have particularly impressed me by their conduct of these operations.

VI. The work of the Royal Flying Corps throughout this period, and especially during the operations of the 10th, 11th, and 12th March, was of the greatest value. Though the weather on March 10th and on the subsequent days was very unfavourable for aerial work, on account of low-lying clouds and mist, a remarkable number of hours' flying of a most valuable character were effected, and continuous and close reconnaissance was maintained over the enemy's front.

In addition to the work of reconnaissance and observation of artillery fire, the Royal Flying Corps was charged with the special duty of hampering the enemy's movements by destroying various points on his communications. The railways at Menin, Courtrai, Don and Douai were attacked, and it is known that very extensive damage was effected at certain of these places. Part of a troop train was hit by a bomb, a wireless installation near Lille is believed to have been effectively destroyed, and a house in which the enemy had installed one of his Head-quarters was set on fire. These afford other instances of successful operations of this character. Most of the objectives mentioned were attacked at a height of only 100 to 150 feet. In one case the pilot descended to about 50 feet above the point he was attacking.

Certain new and important forms of activity, which it is undesirable to specify, have been initiated and pushed forward with much vigour and success.

There have been only eight days during the period under review on which reconnaissances have not been made. A total of approximately 130,000 miles have been flown—almost entirely over the enemy's lines.

No great activity has been shown over our troops on the part of the enemy's aircraft, but they have been attacked whenever and wherever met with, and usually forced down or made to seek refuge in their own lines.

VII. In my last despatch I referred to the remarkable promptitude and rapidity with which reinforcements arrived in this country from England. In connexion with this it is of interest to call attention to the fact that, in spite of the heavy casualties incurred in the fighting between the 10th and 15th March, all deficiencies, both in officers and rank and file, were made good within a few days of the conclusion of the battle.

The drafts for the Indian Contingents have much improved of late, and are now quite satisfactory.

Since the date of my last report the general health of the Army has been excellent ; enteric has decreased, and there has been no recurrence on any appreciable scale of the "foot" trouble which appeared so threatening in December and January.

These results are due to the skill and energy which have characterised in a marked degree the work of the Royal Army Medical Corps throughout the campaign, under the able supervision of Surgeon-General T. J. O'Donnell, D.S.O., Deputy Director-General, Medical Services. But much credit is also due to Divisional, Brigade, Regimental, and Company Commanders for the close supervision which has been kept over the health of their men by seeing that the precautions laid down for the troops before entering and after leaving the trenches are duly observed, and by the establishment and efficient maintenance of bathing-places and wash-houses, and by the ingenious means universally employed throughout the Forces to maintain the cleanliness of the men, having regard both to their bodies and their clothing.

I have inspected most of these houses and establishments, and consider them models of careful organisation and supervision.

I would particularly comment upon the energy displayed by the Royal Army Medical Corps in the scientific efforts they had made to discover and check disease in its earliest stages by a system of experimental research, which I think has never before been so fully developed in the field.

In this work they have been ably assisted by those distinguished members of the medical profession who are now employed as Military Medical Officers, and whose invaluable services I gratefully acknowledge.

The actual strength of the Force in the field has been increased and the health of the troops improved by a system of "convalescent" hospitals.

In these establishments slight wounds and minor ailments are treated, and men requiring attention and rest are received.

By these means efficient soldiers, whose services would otherwise be lost for a long time, are kept in the country, whilst a large number of men are given immediate relief and rest when they require it without removing them from the area of operations.

This adds materially to the fighting efficiency of the Forces.

The principal convalescent hospital is at St. Omer. It was started and organised by Colonel A. F. L. Bate, Army Medical Service, whose zeal, energy, and organising power have rendered it a model hospital of its kind, and this example has materially assisted in the efficient organisation of similar smaller establishments at every Divisional Head-quarters.

VIII. I have already commented upon the number and severity of the casualties in action which have occurred in the period under report,

Here once again I have to draw attention to the excellent work done by Surgeon-General O'Donnell and his officers. No organisation could excel the efficiency of the arrangements—whether in regard to time, space, care and comfort, or transport—which are made for the speedy evacuation of the wounded.

I wish particularly to express my deep sense of the loss incurred by the Army in general and by the Forces in France in particular, in the death of Brigadier-General J. E. Gough, V.C., C.M.G., A.D.C., late Brigadier-General, General Staff, First Army, which occurred on 22nd February, as a result of a severe wound received on the 20th February when inspecting the trenches of the 4th Corps.

I always regarded General Gough as one of our most promising military leaders of the future. His services as a Staff Officer throughout the campaign have been invaluable, and I had already brought his name before Your Lordship for immediate promotion.

I can well understand how deeply these casualties are felt by the nation at large, but each daily report shows clearly that they are being endured on at least an equal scale by all the combatants engaged throughout Europe, friends and foes alike.

In war as it is to-day between civilised nations, armed to the teeth with the present deadly rifle and machine-gun, heavy casualties are absolutely unavoidable. For the slightest undue exposure the heaviest toll is exacted.

The power of defence conferred by modern weapons is the main cause of the long duration of the battles of the present day, and it is this fact which mainly accounts for such loss and waste of life.

Both one and the other can, however, be shortened and lessened if attacks can be supported by the most efficient and powerful force of artillery available; but an almost unlimited supply of ammunition is necessary and a most liberal discretionary power as to its use must be given to the Artillery Commanders.

I am confident that this is the only means by which great results can be obtained with a minimum of loss.

IX. On the 15th February the Canadian Division began to arrive in this country. I inspected the Division, which was under the command of Lieutenant-General E. A. H. Alderson, C.B., on 20th February.

They presented a splendid and most soldier-like appearance on parade. The men were of good physique, hard and fit. I judged by what I saw of them that they were well trained and quite able to take their places in the line of battle.

Since then the Division has thoroughly justified the good opinion I formed of it.

The troops of the Canadian Division were first attached for a few days by brigades for training in the 3rd Corps trenches under Lieutenant-General Sir William Pulteney, who gave me such an excellent report of their efficiency that I was able to employ them in the trenches early in March.

During the Battle of Neuve Chapelle they held a part of the line allotted to the First Army, and, although they were not actually engaged in the main attack, they rendered valuable help by keeping the enemy actively employed in front of their trenches.

All the soldiers of Canada serving in the Army under my command have so far splendidly upheld the traditions of the Empire, and will, I feel sure, prove to be a great source of additional strength to the forces in this country.

In former despatches I have been able to comment very favourably upon the conduct and bearing of the Territorial Forces throughout the operations in which they have been engaged.

As time goes on, and I see more and more of their work, whether in the trenches or engaged in more active operations, I am still further impressed with their value.

Several battalions were engaged in the most critical moments of the heavy fighting which occurred in the middle of March, and they acquitted themselves with the utmost credit.

Up till lately the troops of the Territorial Forces in this country were only employed by battalions, but for some weeks past I have seen formed divisions working together, and I have every hope that their employment in the larger units will prove as successful as in the smaller.

These opinions are fully borne out by the result of the close inspection which I have recently made of the North Midland Division, under Major-General Hon. Montagu-Stuart-Wortley, and the 2nd London Division, under Major-General Barter.

X. General Baron von Kaulbars, of the Russian General Staff, arrived at my Head-quarters on the 18th March. He was anxious to study our aviation system, and I gave him every opportunity of doing so.

The Bishop of London arrived here with his Chaplain on Saturday, March 27th, and left on Monday, April 5th.

During the course of his visit to the Army His Lordship was at the front every day, and I think I am right in saying that there was scarcely a unit in the command which was not at one time or another present at his services or addresses.

Personal fatigue and even danger was completely ignored by His Lordship. The Bishop held several services virtually under shell fire, and it was with difficulty that he could be prevented from carrying on his ministrations under rifle fire in the trenches.

I am anxious to place on record my deep sense of the good effect produced throughout the Army by this self-sacrificing devotion on the part of the Bishop of London, to whom I feel personally very deeply indebted.

I have once more to remark upon the devotion to duty, courage, and contempt of danger which has characterised the work of the Chaplains of the Army throughout this campaign.

XI. The increased strength of the Force and the gradual exhaustion of the local resources have necessitated a corresponding increase in our demands on the Line of Communications, since we are now compelled to import many articles which in the early stages could be obtained by local purchase. The Directorates concerned have, however, been carefully watching the situation, and all the Administrative Services on the Line of Communications have continued to work with smoothness and regularity, in spite of the increased pressure thrown upon them. In this connexion I wish to bring to notice the good service which has been rendered by the Staff of the Base Ports.

The work of the Railway Transport Department has been excellently carried out, and I take this opportunity of expressing my appreciation of the valuable service rendered by the French railway authorities generally, and especially by Colonel Ragueneau, late Directeur des Chemins de Fer, Lieutenant-Colonel Le Hénaff, Directeur des Chemins de Fer, Lieutenant-Colonel Dumont, Commissaire Militaire, Chemin de Fer du Nord, and Lieutenant-Colonel Frid, Commissaire Régulateur, Armée Anglaise.

The Army Postal Service has continued to work well, and at the present time a letter posted in London is delivered at General Headquarters or at the Headquarters of the Armies and Army Corps on the following evening, and reaches an addressee in the trenches on the second day after posting. The delivery of parcels has also been accelerated, and is carried out with regularity and despatch.

XII. His Majesty the King of the Belgians visited the British lines on February 8th and inspected some of the units in reserve behind the trenches.

During the last two months I have been much indebted to His Majesty and his gallant Army for valuable assistance and co-operation in various ways.

XIII. His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales is the bearer of this despatch.

His Royal Highness continues to make most satisfactory progress. During the Battle of Neuve Chapelle he acted on my General Staff as a Liaison Officer. Reports from the General Officers Commanding Corps and Divisions to which he has been attached agree in commending the thoroughness in which he performs any work entrusted to him.

I have myself been very favourably impressed by the quickness with which His Royal Highness has acquired knowledge of the various branches of the service, and the deep interest he has always displayed in the comfort and welfare of the men.

His visits to the troops, both in the field and in hospitals, have been greatly appreciated by all ranks.

His Royal Highness did duty for a time in the trenches with the Battalion to which he belongs.

XIV. In connexion with the Battle of Neuve Chapelle I desire to bring to Your Lordship's special notice the valuable services of General Sir Douglas Haig, K.C.B., K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., A.D.C., Commanding the First Army.

I am also much indebted to the able and devoted assistance I have received from Lieutenant-General Sir William Robertson, K.C.B., K.C.V.O., D.S.O., Chief of the General Staff, in the direction of all the operations recorded in this despatch.

I have many other names to bring to notice for valuable, gallant, and distinguished service during the period under review, and these will form the subject of a separate report at an early date.

I have the honour to be

Your Lordship's most obedient Servant,

J. D. P. FRENCH,

*Field-Marshal, Commanding-in-Chief,
The British Army in the Field.*

DESPATCH RECEIVED BY THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR WAR, FROM THE
GENERAL COMMANDING THE MEDITERRANEAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE.

GENERAL HEAD-QUARTERS,
MEDITERRANEAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE,
20th May, 1915.

MY LORD,—

I have the honour to submit my report on the operations in the Gallipoli Peninsula up to and including the 5th May.

In accordance with Your Lordship's instructions I left London on 13th March with my General Staff by special train to Marseilles, and thence in H.M.S. *Phaeton* to the scene of the naval operations in the Eastern Mediterranean, reaching Tenedos on the 17th March shortly after noon.

Immediately on arrival I conferred with Vice-Admiral de Robeck, Commanding the Eastern Mediterranean Fleet; General d'Amade, Commanding the French Corps Expéditionnaire; and Contre Amiral Guepratte, in command of the French Squadron. At this conference past difficulties were explained to me, and the intention to make a fresh attack on the morrow was announced. The amphibious battle between warships and land fortresses took place next day, the 18th of March. I witnessed these stupendous events, and thereupon cabled your Lordship my reluctant deduction that the co-operation of the whole of the force under my command would be required to enable the Fleet effectively to force the Dardanelles.

By that time I had already carried out a preliminary reconnaissance of the north-western shore of the Gallipoli Peninsula, from its isthmus, where it is spanned by the Bulair fortified lines, to Cape Helles, at its extremest point. From Bulair this singular feature runs in a south-westerly direction for 52 miles, attaining near its centre a breadth of 12 miles. The northern coast of the northern half of the promontory slopes downward steeply to the Gulf of Xeros, in a chain of hills, which extend as far as Cape Suvla. The precipitous fall of these hills precludes landing, except at a few narrow gullies, far too restricted for any serious military movements. The southern half of the peninsula is shaped like a badly-worn boot. The ankle lies between Gaba Tepe and Kalkmaz Dag; beneath the heel lie the cluster of forts at Kilid Bahr; whilst the toe is that promontory five miles in width, stretching from Tekke Burnu to Sedd-el-Bahr.

The three dominating features in this southern section seemed to me to be:—

(1) Saribair Mountain, running up in a succession of almost perpendicular escarpments to 970 feet. The whole mountain seemed to be a network of ravines and covered with thick jungle.

(2) Kilid Bahr plateau, which rises, a natural fortification artificially fortified, to a height of 700 feet to cover the forts of the narrows from an attack from the *Ægean*.

(3) Achi Babi, a hill 600 feet in height, dominating at long field-gun range what I have described as being the toe of the peninsula.

A peculiarity to be noted as regards this last southern sector is that from Achi Babi to Cape Helles the ground is hollowed out like a spoon,

presenting only its outer edges to direct fire from the sea. The inside of the spoon appears to be open and undulating, but actually it is full of spurs, nullahs, and confused under-features.

Generally speaking the coast is precipitous, and good landing-places are few. Just south of Tekke Burnu is a small sandy bay (W), and half a mile north of it is another small break in the cliffs (X). Two miles farther up the coast the mouth of a stream indents these same cliffs (Y 2), and yet another mile and a half up a scrub-covered gully looked as if active infantry might be able to scramble up it on to heights not altogether dissimilar to those of Abraham, by Quebec (Y). Inside Sedd-el-Bahr is a sandy beach (V), about 300 yards across, facing a semi-circle of steeply rising ground, as the flat bottom of a half-saucer faces the rim, a rim flanked on one side by an old castle, on the other by a modern fort. By Eski Hissarlik, on the east of Morto Bay (S), was another small beach, which was, however, dominated by the big guns from Asia. Turning northwards again, there are two good landing-places on either side of Gaba Tepe. Farther to the north of that promontory the beach was supposed to be dangerous and difficult. In most of these landing-places the trenches and lines of wire entanglements were plainly visible from on board ship. What seemed to be gun emplacements and infantry redoubts could also be made out through a telescope, but of the full extent of these defences and of the forces available to man them there was no possibility of judging except by practical test.

Altogether the result of this and subsequent reconnaissances was to convince me that nothing but a thorough and systematic scheme for flinging the whole of the troops under my command very rapidly ashore could be expected to meet with success; whereas, on the other hand, a tentative or piecemeal programme was bound to lead to disaster. The landing of an army upon the theatre of operations I have described—a theatre strongly garrisoned throughout, and prepared for any such attempt—involved difficulties for which no precedent was forthcoming in military history except possibly in the sinister legends of Xerxes. The beaches were either so well defended by works and guns or else so restricted by nature that it did not seem possible, even by two or three simultaneous landings, to pass the troops ashore quickly enough to enable them to maintain themselves against the rapid concentration and counter-attack which the enemy was bound in such case to attempt. It became necessary, therefore, not only to land simultaneously at as many points as possible, but to threaten to land at other points as well. The first of these necessities involved another unavoidable if awkward contingency, the separation by considerable intervals of the force.

The weather was also bound to play a vital part in my landing. Had it been British weather there would have been no alternative but instantly to give up the adventure. To land two or three thousand men, and then to have to break off and leave them exposed for a week to the attacks of 34,000 regular troops, with a hundred guns at their back, was not an eventuality to be lightly envisaged. Whatever happened the weather must always remain an incalculable factor, but at least by delay till the end of April we had a fair chance of several days of consecutive calm.

Before doing anything else I had to redistribute the troops on the trans-

ports to suit the order of their disembarkation. The bulk of the forces at my disposal had, perforce, been embarked without its having been possible to pay due attention to the operation upon which I now proposed that they should be launched.

Owing to lack of facilities at Mudros redistribution in that harbour was out of the question. With Your Lordship's approval, therefore, I ordered all the transports, except those of the Australian Infantry Brigade and the details encamped at Lemnos Island, to the Egyptian ports. On the 24th March I myself, together with the General Staff, proceeded to Alexandria, where I remained until 7th April, working out the allocation of troops to transports in minutest detail as a prelude to the forthcoming disembarkation. General d'Amade did likewise.

On the 1st April the remainder of the General Head-quarters, which had not been mobilised when I left England, arrived at Alexandria.

By the 7th April my preparations were sufficiently advanced to enable me to return with my General Staff to Lemnos, so as to put the finishing touches to my plan in close co-ordination with the Vice-Admiral Commanding the Eastern Mediterranean Fleet.

The covering force of the 29th Division left Mudros Harbour on the evening of 23rd April for the five beaches, S, V, W, X, and Y. Of these V, W, and X were to be main landings, the landings at S and Y being made mainly to protect the flanks, to disseminate the forces of the enemy, and to interrupt the arrival of his reinforcements. The landings at S and Y were to take place at dawn, whilst it was planned that the first troops for V, W, and X beaches should reach the shore simultaneously at 5.30 A.M. after half an hour's bombardment from the Fleet.

The transports conveying the covering force arrived off Tenedos on the morning of the 24th, and during the afternoon the troops were transferred to the warships and fleet-sweepers in which they were to approach the shore. About midnight these ships, each towing a number of cutters and other small boats, silently slipped their cables and, escorted by the 3rd Squadron of the Fleet, steamed slowly towards their final rendezvous at Cape Helles. The rendezvous was reached just before dawn on the 25th. The morning was absolutely still; there was no sign of life on the shore; a thin veil of mist hung motionless over the promontory; the surface of the sea was as smooth as glass. The four battleships and four cruisers which formed the 3rd Squadron at once took up the positions that had been allotted to them, and at 5 A.M., it being then light enough to fire, a violent bombardment of the enemy's defences was begun. Meanwhile the troops were being rapidly transferred to the small boats in which they were to be towed ashore. Not a move on the part of the enemy; except for shells thrown from the Asiatic side of the Straits the guns of the Fleet remained unanswered.

The detachment detailed for S beach (Eski Hissarlik Point) consisted of the 2nd South Wales Borderers (less one company) under Lieutenant-Colonel Casson. Their landing was delayed by the current, but by 7.30 A.M. it had been successfully effected at the cost of some fifty casualties, and Lieutenant-Colonel Casson was able to establish his small force on the high ground near De Totts Battery. Here he maintained himself until the general advance on the 27th brought him into touch with the main body

The landing on Y beach was entrusted to the King's Own Scottish Borderers and the Plymouth (Marine) Battalion, Royal Naval Division, specially attached to the 29th Division for this task, the whole under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Koe. The beach at this point consisted merely of a narrow strip of sand at the foot of a crumbling scrub-covered cliff some 200 feet high immediately to the west of Krithia.

A number of small gullies running down the face of the cliff facilitated the climb to the summit, and so impracticable had these precipices appeared to the Turks that no steps had been taken to defend them. Very different would it have been had we, as was at one time intended, taken Y 2 for this landing. There a large force of infantry, entrenched up to their necks, and supported by machine and Hotchkiss guns, were awaiting an attempt which could hardly have made good its footing. But at Y both battalions were able in the first instance to establish themselves on the heights, reserves of food, water, and ammunition were hauled up to the top of the cliff, and, in accordance with the plan of operations, an endeavour was immediately made to gain touch with the troops landing at X beach. Unfortunately, the enemy's strong detachment from Y 2 interposed, our troops landing at X were fully occupied in attacking the Turks immediately to their front, and the attempt to join hands was not persevered with.

Later in the day a large force of Turks were seen to be advancing upon the cliffs above Y beach from the direction of Krithia, and Colonel Koe was obliged to entrench. From this time onward his small force was subjected to strong and repeated attacks, supported by field artillery, and owing to the configuration of the ground, which here drops inland from the edge of the cliff, the guns of the supporting ships could render him little assistance. Throughout the afternoon and all through the night the Turks made assault after assault upon the British line. They threw bombs into the trenches, and, favoured by darkness, actually led a pony with a machine gun on its back over the defences and were proceeding to come into action in the middle of our position when they were bayoneted.

The British repeatedly counter-charged with the bayonet, and always drove off the enemy for the moment, but the Turks were in a vast superiority and fresh troops took the place of those who temporarily fell back. Colonel Koe (since died of wounds) had become a casualty early in the day, and the number of officers and men killed and wounded during the incessant fighting was very heavy. By 7 A.M. on the 26th only about half of the King's Own Scottish Borderers remained to man the entrenchment made for four times their number. These brave fellows were absolutely worn out with continuous fighting; it was doubtful if reinforcements could reach them in time, and orders were issued for them to be re-embarked. Thanks to *H.M.S. Goliath, Dublin, Amethyst, and Sapphire*, thanks also to the devotion of a small rearguard of the King's Own Scottish Borderers, which kept off the enemy from lining the cliff, the re-embarkation of the whole of the troops, together with the wounded, stores, and ammunition, was safely accomplished, and both battalions were brought round the southern end of the peninsula. Deploable as the heavy losses had been, and unfortunate as was the tactical failure to make good so much ground at the outset, yet, taking the operation as it stood,

there can be no doubt it has contributed greatly to the success of the main attack, seeing that the plucky stand made at Y beach had detained heavy columns of the enemy from arriving at the southern end of the peninsula during what it will be seen was a very touch-and-go struggle.

The landing-place known as X beach consists of a strip of sand some 200 yards long by 8 yards wide at the foot of a low cliff. The troops to be landed here were the 1st Royal Fusiliers, who were to be towed ashore from H.M.S. *Implacable* in two parties, half a battalion at a time, together with a beach working party found by the Anson battalion, Royal Naval Division. About 6 A.M. H.M.S. *Implacable*, with a boldness much admired by the Army, stood quite close in to the beach, firing very rapidly with every gun she could bring to bear. Thus seconded, the Royal Fusiliers made good their landing with but little loss. The battalion then advanced to attack the Turkish trenches on the Hill 114, situated between V and W beaches, but were heavily counter-attacked and forced to give ground. Two more battalions of the 87th Brigade soon followed them, and by evening the troops had established themselves in an entrenched position extending from half a mile round the landing-place and as far south as Hill 114. Here they were in touch with the Lancashire Fusiliers, who had landed on W beach. Brigadier-General Marshall, commanding the 87th Brigade, had been wounded during the day's fighting, but continued in command of the brigade.

The landing on V beach was planned to take place on the following lines:—

As soon as the enemy's defences had been heavily bombarded by the Fleet, three companies of the Dublin Fusiliers were to be towed ashore. They were to be closely followed by the collier *River Clyde* (Commander Unwin, R.N.), carrying between decks the balance of the Dublin Fusiliers, the Munster Fusiliers, half a battalion of the Hampshire Regiment, the West Riding Field Company, and other details.

The *River Clyde* had been specially prepared for the rapid disembarkation of her complement, and large openings for the exit of the troops had been cut in her sides, giving on to a wide gang-plank by which the men could pass rapidly into lighters which she had in tow. As soon as the first tows had reached land the *River Clyde* was to be run straight ashore. Her lighters were to be placed in position to form a gangway between the ship and the beach, and by this means it was hoped that 2,000 men would be thrown ashore with the utmost rapidity. Further, to assist in covering the landing, a battery of machine guns, protected by sandbags, had been mounted in her bows.

The remainder of the covering force detailed for this beach was then to follow in tows from the attendant battleships.

V beach is situated immediately to the west of Sedd-el-Bahr. Between the bluff on which stands Sedd-el-Bahr village and that which is crowned by No. 1 Fort the ground forms a very regular amphitheatre of three or four hundred yards radius. The slopes down to the beach are slightly concave, so that the whole area contained within the limits of this natural amphitheatre, whose grassy terraces rise gently to a height of a hundred feet above the shore, can be swept by the fire of a defender. The beach itself is a sandy strip some ten yards wide and 350 yards long, backed

along almost the whole of its extent by a low sandy escarpment about four feet high, where the ground falls nearly sheer down to the beach. The slight shelter afforded by this escarpment played no small part in the operations of the succeeding thirty-two hours.

At the south-eastern extremity of the beach, between the shore and the village, stands the old fort of Sedd-el-Bahr, a battered ruin with wide breaches in its walls and mounds of fallen masonry within and around it. On the ridge to the north, overlooking the amphitheatre, stands a ruined barrack. Both of these buildings, as well as No. 1 Fort, had been long bombarded by the Fleet, and the guns of the forts had been put out of action; but their crumbled walls and the ruined outskirts of the village afforded cover for riflemen, while from the terraced slopes already described the defenders were able to command the open beach, as a stage is overlooked from the balconies of a theatre. On the very margin of the beach a strong barbed-wire entanglement, made of heavier metal and longer barbs than I have ever seen elsewhere, ran right across from the old fort of Sedd-el-Bahr to the foot of the north-western headland. Two-thirds of the way up the ridge a second and even stronger entanglement crossed the amphitheatre, passing in front of the old barrack and ending in the outskirts of the village. A third transverse entanglement, joining these two, ran up the hill near the eastern end of the beach, and almost at right angles to it. Above the upper entanglement the ground was scored with the enemy's trenches, in one of which four pom-poms were emplaced; in others were dummy pom-poms to draw fire, while the *débris* of the shattered buildings on either flank afforded cover and concealment for a number of machine guns, which brought a cross-fire to bear on the ground already swept by rifle fire from the ridge.

As often happens in war, the actual course of events did not quite correspond with the intentions of the Commander. The *River Clyde* came into position off Sedd-el-Bahr in advance of the tows, and, just as the latter reached the shore, Commander Unwin beached his ship also. Whilst the boats and the collier were approaching the landing-place the Turks made no sign. Up to the very last moment it appeared as if the landing was to be unopposed. But the moment the first boat touched bottom the storm broke. A tornado of fire swept over the beach, the incoming boats, and the collier. The Dublin Fusiliers and the naval boats' crews suffered exceedingly heavy losses while still in the boats. Those who succeeded in landing and in crossing the strip of sand managed to gain some cover when they reached the low escarpment on the farther side. None of the boats, however, were able to get off again, and they and their crews were destroyed upon the beach.

Now came the moment for the *River Clyde* to pour forth her living freight; but grievous delay was caused here by the difficulty of placing the lighters in position between the ship and the shore. A strong current hindered the work, and the enemy's fire was so intense that almost every man engaged upon it was immediately shot. Owing, however, to the splendid gallantry of the naval working party, the lighters were eventually placed in position and then the disembarkation began.

A company of the Munster Fusiliers led the way; but, short as was the distance, few of the men ever reached the farther side of the beach through

the hail of bullets which poured down upon them from both flanks and the front. As the second company followed, the extemporised pier of lighters gave way in the current. The end nearest the shore drifted into deep water, and many men who had escaped being shot were drowned by the weight of their equipment in trying to swim from the lighter to the beach. Undaunted workers were still forthcoming, the lighters were again brought into position, and the third company of the Munster Fusiliers rushed ashore, suffering heaviest loss this time from shrapnel as well as from rifle, pom-pom, and machine-gun fire.

For a space the attempt to land was discontinued. When it was resumed the lighters again drifted into deep water, with Brigadier-General Napier, Captain Costeker, his Brigade Major, and a number of men of the Hampshire Regiment on board. There was nothing for them all but to lie down on the lighters, and it was here that General Napier and Captain Costeker were killed. At this time, between 10 and 11 A.M., about 1,000 men had left the collier, and of these nearly half had been killed or wounded before they could reach the little cover afforded by the steep, sandy bank at the top of the beach. Further attempts to disembark were now given up. Had the troops all been in open boats but few of them would have lived to tell the tale. But, most fortunately, the collier was so constructed as to afford fairly efficient protection to the men who were still on board, and, so long as they made no attempt to land, they suffered comparatively little loss.

Throughout the remainder of the day there was practically no change in the position of affairs. The situation was probably saved by the machine-guns on the *River Clyde*, which did valuable service in keeping down the enemy's fire and in preventing any attempt on their part to launch a counter-attack. One half-company of the Dublin Fusiliers, which had been landed at a camber just east of Sedd-el-Bahr village, was unable to work its way across to V beach, and by mid-day had only twenty-five men left. It was proposed to divert to Y beach that part of the main body which had been intended to land on V beach; but this would have involved considerable delay owing to the distance, and the main body was diverted to W beach, where the Lancashire Fusiliers had already effected a landing.

Late in the afternoon part of the Worcestershire Regiment and the Lancashire Fusiliers worked across the high ground from W beach, and seemed likely to relieve the situation by taking the defenders of V beach in flank. The pressure on their own front, however, and the numerous barbed-wire entanglements which intervened, checked this advance, and at nightfall the Turkish garrison still held their ground. Just before dark some small parties of our men made their way along the shore to the outer walls of the Old Fort, and when night had fallen the remainder of the infantry from the collier were landed. A good force was now available for attack, but our troops were at such a cruel disadvantage as to position, and the fire of the enemy was still so accurate in the bright moonlight, that all attempts to clear the fort and the outskirts of the village during the night failed one after the other. The wounded who were able to do so without support returned to the collier under cover of darkness; but otherwise the situation at daybreak on the 26th was the same as it had

been on the previous day, except that the troops first landed were becoming very exhausted.

Twenty-four hours after the disembarkation began there were ashore on V beach the survivors of the Dublin and Munster Fusiliers and of two companies of the Hampshire Regiment. The brigadier and his brigade-major had been killed; Lieutenant-Colonel Carrington Smith, commanding the Hampshire Regiment, had been killed and the adjutant had been wounded. The adjutant of the Munster Fusiliers was wounded, and the great majority of the senior officers were either wounded or killed. The remnant of the landing party still crouched on the beach beneath the shelter of the sandy escarpment which had saved so many lives. With them were two officers of my General Staff—Lieutenant-Colonel Doughty-Wylie and Lieutenant-Colonel Williams. These two officers who had landed from the *River Clyde*, had been striving, with conspicuous contempt for danger, to keep all their comrades in good heart during this day and night of ceaseless imminent peril.

Now that it was daylight once more, Lieutenant-Colonels Doughty-Wylie and Williams set to work to organise an attack on the hill above the beach. Any soldier who has endeavoured to pull scattered units together after they have been dominated for many consecutive hours by close and continuous fire will be able to take the measure of their difficulties. Fortunately General Hunter-Weston had arranged with Rear-Admiral Wemyss about this same time for a heavy bombardment to be opened by the ships upon the Old Fort, Sedd-el-Bahr village, the Old Castle north of the village, and on the ground leading up from the beach. Under cover of this bombardment, and led by Lieutenant-Colonel Doughty-Wylie and Captain Walford, Brigade Major R.A., the troops gained a footing in the village by 10 A.M. They encountered a most stubborn opposition and suffered heavy losses from the fire of well-concealed riflemen and machine guns. Undeterred by the resistance, and supported by the naval gunfire, they pushed forward, and soon after midday they penetrated to the northern edge of the village, whence they were in a position to attack the Old Castle and Hill 141. During this advance Captain Walford was killed. Lieutenant-Colonel Doughty-Wylie had most gallantly led the attack all the way up from the beach, through the west side of the village, under a galling fire. And now, when, owing so largely to his own inspiring example and intrepid courage, the position had almost been gained, he was killed while leading the last assault. But the attack was pushed forward without wavering, and, fighting their way across the open with great dash, the troops gained the summit and occupied the Old Castle and Hill 141 before 2 P.M.

W beach consists of a strip of deep powdery sand some 350 yards long and from 15 to 40 yards wide, situated immediately south of Tekke Burnu, where a small gully running down to the sea opens out a break in the cliffs. On either flank of the beach the ground rises precipitously, but, in the centre, a number of sand dunes afford a more gradual access to the ridge overlooking the sea. Much time and ingenuity had been employed by the Turks in turning this landing-place into a death trap. Close to the water's edge a broad wire entanglement extended the whole length of the shore and a supplementary barbed network lay concealed under

the surface of the sea in the shallows. Land mines and sea mines had been laid. The high ground overlooking the beach was strongly fortified with trenches to which the gully afforded a natural covered approach. A number of machine guns also were cunningly tucked away into holes in the cliffs so as to be immune from a naval bombardment whilst they were converging their fire on the wire entanglements. The crest of the hill overlooking the beach was in its turn commanded by high ground to the north-west and south-east, and especially by two strong infantry redoubts near point 138. Both these redoubts were protected by wire entanglements about 20 feet broad, and could be approached only by a bare glacié-like slope leading up from the high ground above W beach or from the Cape Helles lighthouse. In addition, another separate entanglement ran down from these two redoubts to the edge of the cliff near the lighthouse, making intercommunication between V and W beaches impossible until these redoubts had been captured.

So strong, in fact, were the defences of W beach that the Turks may well have considered them impregnable, and it is my firm conviction that no finer feat of arms has ever been achieved by the British soldier—or any other soldier—than the storming of these trenches from open boats on the morning of 25th April.

The landing at W had been entrusted to the 1st Battalion Lancashire Fusiliers (Major Bishop), and it was to the complete lack of the sense of danger or of fear of this daring battalion that we owed our astonishing success. As in the case of the landing at X, the disembarkation had been delayed for half an hour, but at 6 A.M. the whole battalion approached the shore together, towed by eight picket boats in line abreast, each picket boat pulling four ship's cutters. As soon as shallow water was reached, the tows were cast off and the boats were at once rowed to the shore. Three companies headed for the beach and a company on the left of the line made for a small ledge of rock immediately under the cliff at Tekke Burnu. Brigadier-General Hare, commanding the 88th Brigade, accompanied this latter party, which escaped the cross-fire brought to bear upon the beach, and was also in a better position than the rest of the battalion to turn the wire entanglements.

While the troops were approaching the shore no shot had been fired from the enemy's trenches, but as soon as the first boat touched the ground a hurricane of lead swept over the battalion. Gallantly led by their officers, the Fusiliers literally hurled themselves ashore, and, fired at from right, left, and centre, commenced hacking their way through the wire. A long line of men was at once mown down as by a scythe, but the remainder were not to be denied. Covered by the fire of the warships, which had now closed right in to the shore, and helped by the flanking fire of the company on the extreme left, they broke through the entanglements and collected under the cliffs on either side of the beach. Here the companies were rapidly reformed, and set forth to storm the enemy's entrenchments wherever they could find them.

In making these attacks the bulk of the battalion moved up towards Hill 114 whilst a small party worked down towards the trenches on the Cape Helles side of the landing-place.

Several land mines were exploded by the Turks during the advance, but the determination of the troops was in no way affected. By 10 A.M. three

lines of hostile trenches were in our hands, and our hold on the beach was assured.

About 9.30 A.M. more infantry had begun to disembark, and two hours later a junction was effected on Hill 114 with the troops who had landed on X beach.

On the right, owing to the strength of the redoubt on Hill 138, little progress could be made. The small party of Lancashire Fusiliers which had advanced in this direction succeeded in reaching the edge of the wire entanglements, but were not strong enough to do more, and it was here that Major Frankland, Brigade Major of the 86th Infantry Brigade, who had gone forward to make a personal reconnaissance, was unfortunately killed. Brigadier-General Hare had been wounded earlier in the day, and Colonel Woolly-Dod, General Staff 29th Division, was now sent ashore to take command at W beach and organise a further advance.

At 2 P.M., after the ground near Hill 138 had been subjected to a heavy bombardment, the Worcester Regiment advanced to the assault. Several men of this battalion rushed forward with great spirit to cut passages through the entanglement; some were killed, others persevered, and by 4 P.M. the hill and redoubt were captured.

An attempt was now made to join hands with the troops on V beach, who could make no headway at all against the dominating defences of the enemy. To help them out the 86th Brigade pushed forward in an easterly direction along the cliff. There is a limit, however, to the storming of barbed wire entanglements. More of these barred the way. Again the heroic wire-cutters came out. Through glasses they could be seen quietly snipping away under a hellish fire as if they were pruning a vineyard. Again some of them fell. The fire pouring out of No. 1 fort grew hotter and hotter, until the troops, now thoroughly exhausted by a sleepless night and by a long day's fighting under a hot sun, had to rest on their laurels for a while.

When night fell the British position in front of W beach extended from just east of Cape Helles lighthouse, through Hill 138 to Hill 114. Practically every man had to be thrown into the trenches to hold this line, and the only available reserves on this part of our front were the 2nd London Field Company R.E. and a platoon of the Anson Battalion, which had been landed as a beach working party.

The Australian and New Zealand Army Corps sailed out of Mudros Bay on the afternoon of April 24th, escorted by the second squadron of the Fleet, under Rear-Admiral Thursby. The rendezvous was reached just after half-past one in the morning of the 25th, and there the 1,500 men who had been placed on board H.M. ships before leaving Mudros were transferred to their boats. This operation was carried out with remarkable expedition, and in absolute silence. Simultaneously the remaining 2,500 men of the covering force were transferred from their transports to six destroyers. At 2.30 A.M. H.M. ships, together with the tows and the destroyers, proceeded to within some four miles of the coast, H.M.S. *Queen* (flying Rear-Admiral Thursby's flag) directing on a point about a mile north of Gaba Tepe. At 3.30 A.M. orders to go ahead and land were given to the tows and at 4.10 A.M. the destroyers were ordered to follow.

All these arrangements worked without a hitch, and were carried out in complete orderliness and silence. No breath of wind ruffled the surface of the sea, and every condition was favourable save for the moon, which, sinking behind the ships, may have silhouetted them against its orb, betraying them thus to watchers on the shore.

A rugged and difficult part of the coast had been selected for the landing, so difficult and rugged that I considered the Turks were not at all likely to anticipate such a descent. Indeed, owing to the tows having failed to maintain their exact direction the actual point of disembarkation was rather more than a mile north of that which I had selected, and was more closely overhung by steeper cliffs. Although this accident increased the initial difficulty of driving the enemy off the heights inland, it has since proved itself to have been a blessing in disguise, inasmuch as the actual base of the force of occupation has been much better defiled from shell fire.

The beach on which the landing was actually effected is a very narrow strip of sand, about 1,000 yards in length, bounded on the north and the south by two small promontories. At its southern extremity a deep ravine, with exceedingly steep, scrub-clad sides, runs inland in a north-easterly direction. Near the northern end of the beach a small but steep gully runs up into the hills at right angles to the shore. Between the ravine and the gully the whole of the beach is backed by the seaward face of the spur which forms the north-western side of the ravine. From the top of the spur the ground falls almost sheer except near the southern limit of the beach, where gentler slopes give access to the mouth of the ravine behind. Further inland lie in a tangled knot the under-features of Saribair, separated by deep ravines, which take a most confusing diversity of direction. Sharp spurs, covered with dense scrub, and falling away in many places in precipitous sandy cliffs, radiate from the principal mass of the mountain, from which they run north-west, west, south-west, and south to the coast.

The boats approached the land in the silence and the darkness, and they were close to the shore before the enemy stirred. Then about one battalion of Turks was seen running along the beach to intercept the lines of boats. At this so critical a moment the conduct of all ranks was most praiseworthy. Not a word was spoken—every one remained perfectly orderly and quiet awaiting the enemy's fire, which sure enough opened, causing many casualties. The moment the boats touched land the Australians' turn had come. Like lightning they leapt ashore, and each man as he did so went straight as his bayonet at the enemy. So vigorous was the onslaught that the Turks made no attempt to withstand it and fled from ridge to ridge pursued by the Australian infantry.

This attack was carried out by the 3rd Australian Brigade, under Major (temporary Colonel) Sinclair MacLagan, D.S.O. The 1st and 2nd Brigades followed promptly, and were all disembarked by 2 P.M., by which time 12,000 men and two batteries of Indian Mountain Artillery had been landed. The disembarkation of further artillery was delayed owing to the fact that the enemy's heavy guns opened on the anchorage and forced the transports, which had been subjected to continuous shelling from his field guns, to stand farther out to sea.

The broken ground, the thick scrub, the necessity for sending any formed detachments post haste as they landed to the critical point of the moment, the headlong valour of scattered groups of the men who had pressed far further into the peninsula than had been intended—all these led to confusion and mixing up of units. Eventually the mixed crowd of fighting men, some advancing from the beach, others falling back before the oncoming Turkish supports, solidified into a semi-circular position with its right about a mile north of Gaba Tepe and its left on the high ground over Fisherman's Hut. During this period parties of the 9th and 10th Battalions charged and put out of action three of the enemy's Krupp guns. During this period also the disembarkation of the Australian Division was being followed by that of the New Zealand and Australian Division (two brigades only).

From 11 A.M. to 3 P.M. the enemy, now reinforced to a strength of 20,000 men, attacked the whole line, making a specially strong effort against the 3rd Brigade and the left of the 2nd Brigade. This counter-attack was, however, handsomely repulsed with the help of the guns of H.M. ships. Between 5 and 6.30 P.M. a third most determined counter-attack was made against the 3rd Brigade, who held their ground with more than equivalent stubbornness. During the night again the Turks made constant attacks, and the 8th Battalion repelled a bayonet charge; but in spite of all the line held firm. The troops had had practically no rest on the night of the 24/25th; they had been fighting hard all day over most difficult country, and they had been subjected to heavy shrapnel fire in the open. Their casualties had been deplorably heavy. But, despite their losses and in spite of their fatigue, the morning of the 26th found them still in good heart and as full of fight as ever.

It is a consolation to know that the Turks suffered still more seriously. Several times our machine guns got on to them in close formation, and the whole surrounding country is still strewn with their dead of this date.

The reorganisation of units and formations was impossible during the 26th and 27th owing to persistent attacks. An advance was impossible until a reorganisation could be effected, and it only remained to entrench the position gained and to perfect the arrangements for bringing up ammunition, water, and supplies to the ridges—in itself a most difficult undertaking. Four battalions of the Royal Naval Division were sent up to reinforce the Army Corps on the 28th and 29th April.

On the night of May 2nd a bold effort was made to seize a commanding knoll in front of the centre of the line. The enemy's enfilading machine guns were too scientifically posted, and 800 men were lost without advantage beyond the infliction of a corresponding loss to the enemy. On May 4th an attempt to seize Gaba Tepe was also unsuccessful, the barbed-wire here being something beyond belief. But a number of minor operations have been carried out, such as the taking of a Turkish observing station; the strengthening of entrenchments; the reorganisation of units, and the perfecting of communication with the landing-place. Also a constant strain has been placed upon some of the best troops of the enemy, who to the number of 24,000 are constantly kept fighting and being killed and wounded freely, as the Turkish sniper is no match for the Kangaroo shooter even at his own game.

Concurrently with the British landings a regiment of the French Corps was successfully disembarked at Kum Kale under the guns of the French Fleet, and remained ashore until the morning of the 26th, when they were re-embarked. 500 prisoners were captured by the French on this day.

On the evening of the 26th the main disembarkation of the French Corps was begun, V beach being allotted to our Allies for this purpose, and it was arranged that the French should hold the portion of the front between the telegraph wire and the sea.

The following day I ordered a general advance to a line stretching from Hill 236 near Eski Hissarlik Point to the mouth of the stream two miles north of Tekke Burnu. This advance, which was commenced at midday, was completed without opposition, and the troops at once consolidated their new line.

By the evening of the 27th the Allied forces had established themselves on a line some three miles long, which stretched from the mouth of the nullah, 3,200 yards north-east of Tekke Burnu to Eski Hissarlik Point, the three brigades of the 29th Division less two battalions on the left and in the centre, with four French battalions on the right, and beyond them again the South Wales Borderers on the extreme right.

Owing to casualties this line was somewhat thinly held. Still, it was so vital to make what headway we could before the enemy recovered himself and received fresh reinforcements that it was decided to push on as quickly as possible. Orders were therefore issued for a general advance to commence at 8 A.M. next day.

The 29th Division were to march on Krithia, with their left brigade leading, the French were directed to extend their left in conformity with the British movements and to retain their right on the coast-line south of the Kereves Dere.

The advance commenced at 8 A.M. on the 28th and was carried out with commendable vigour, despite the fact that from the moment of landing the troops had been unable to obtain any proper rest.

The 87th Brigade, with which had been incorporated the Drake Battalion, Royal Naval Division, in the place of the King's Own Scottish Borderers and South Wales Borderers, pushed on rapidly, and by 10 A.M. had advanced some two miles. Here the further progress of the Border Regiment was barred by a strong work on the left flank. They halted to concentrate and make dispositions to attack it, and at that moment had to withstand a determined counter-attack by the Turks. Aided by heavy gun fire from H.M.S. *Queen Elizabeth*, they succeeded in beating off the attack, but they made no further progress that day, and when night fell entrenched themselves on the ground they had gained in the morning.

The Inniskilling Fusiliers, who advanced with their right on the Krithia ravine, reached a point about three-quarters of a mile south-west of Krithia. This was, however, the farthest limit attained, and later on in the day they fell back into line with other corps.

The 88th Brigade on the right of the 87th progressed steadily until about 11.30 A.M., when the stubbornness of the opposition, coupled with a dearth of ammunition, brought their advance to a standstill. The 86th Brigade, under Lieutenant-Colonel Casson, which had been held in reserve, were thereupon ordered to push forward through the 88th Brigade in the direction of Krithia.

The movement commenced at about 1 P.M., but though small reconnoitring parties got to within a few hundred yards of Krithia, the main body of the brigade did not get beyond the line held by the 88th Brigade. Meanwhile the French had also pushed on in the face of strong opposition along the spurs on the western bank of the Kereves Dere, and had got to within a mile of Krithia with their right thrown back and their left in touch with the 88th Brigade. Here they were unable to make further progress; gradually the strength of the resistance made itself felt, and our Allies were forced during the afternoon to give ground.

By 2 P.M. the whole of the troops with the exception of the Drake Battalion had been absorbed into the firing line. The men were exhausted, and the few guns landed at the time were unable to afford them adequate artillery support. The small amount of transport available did not suffice to maintain the supply of munitions, and cartridges were running short, despite all efforts to push them up from the landing-places.

Hopes of getting a footing on Achi Babi had now perforce to be abandoned—at least for this occasion. The best that could be expected was that we should be able to maintain what we had won, and when at 3 P.M. the Turks made a determined counter-attack with the bayonet against the centre and right of our line, even this seemed exceedingly doubtful. Actually a partial retirement did take place. The French were also forced back, and at 6 P.M. orders were issued for our troops to entrench themselves as best they could in the positions they then held, with their right flank thrown back so as to maintain connexion with our Allies. In this retirement the right flank of the 88th Brigade was temporarily uncovered, and the Worcester Regiment suffered severely.

Much inevitable mixing of units of the 86th and 88th Brigades had occurred during the day's fighting, and there was a dangerous re-entrant in the line at the junction of the 87th and 88th Brigades near the Krithia nullah. The French had lost heavily, especially in officers, and required time to reorganise.

The 29th April was consequently spent in straightening the line, and in consolidating and strengthening the positions gained. There was a certain amount of artillery and musketry fire, but nothing serious.

Similarly, on the 30th, no advance was made, nor was any attack delivered by the enemy. The landing of the bulk of the artillery was completed, and a readjustment of the line took place, the portion held by the French being somewhat increased.

Two more battalions of the Royal Naval Division had been disembarked, and these, together with three battalions of the 88th Brigade withdrawn from the line, were formed into a reserve.

This reserve was increased on the 1st May by the addition of the 29th Indian Infantry Brigade, which released the three battalions of the 88th Brigade to return to the trenches. The Corps Expéditionnaire d'Orient had disembarked the whole of their infantry and all but two of their batteries by the same evening.

At 10 P.M. the Turks opened a hot shell fire upon our position, and half an hour later, just before the rise of the moon, they delivered a series of desperate attacks. Their formation was in three solid lines, the men in the front rank being deprived of ammunition to make them rely only

upon the bayonet. The officers were served out with coloured Bengal lights to fire from their pistols, red indicating to the Turkish guns that they were to lengthen their range; white that our front trenches had been stormed; green that our main position had been carried. The Turkish attack was to crawl on hands and knees until the time came for the final rush to be made. An eloquent hortative was signed Von Zowenstern and addressed to the Turkish rank and file who were called upon, by one mighty effort, to fling us all back into the sea.

"Attack the enemy with the bayonet and utterly destroy him!

"We shall not retire one step; for, if we do, our religion, our country, and our nation will perish!

"Soldiers! The world is looking at you! Your only hope of salvation is to bring this battle to a successful issue or gloriously to give up your life in the attempt!"

The first momentum of this ponderous onslaught fell upon the right of the 86th Brigade, an unlucky spot, seeing all the officers thereabouts had already been killed or wounded. So when the Turks came right on without firing and charged into the trenches with the bayonet they made an ugly gap in the line. This gap was instantly filled by the 5th Royal Scots (Territorials), who faced to their flank and executed a brilliant bayonet charge against the enemy, and by the Essex Regiment detached for the purpose by the officer commanding 88th Brigade. The rest of the British line held its own with comparative ease, and it was not found necessary to employ any portion of the reserve. The storm next broke in fullest violence against the French left, which was held by the Senegalese. Behind them were two British Field Artillery Brigades and a Howitzer Battery. After several charges and counter-charges the Senegalese began to give ground, and a company of the Worcester Regiment and some gunners were sent forward to hold the gap. Later, a second company of the Worcester Regiment was also sent up, and the position was then maintained for the remainder of the night, although about 2 A.M. it was found necessary to despatch one battalion Royal Naval Division to strengthen the extreme right of the French.

About 5 A.M. a counter-offensive was ordered and the whole line began to advance. By 7.30 A.M. the British left had gained some 500 yards, and the centre had pushed the enemy back and inflicted heavy losses. The right also had gained some ground in conjunction with the French left, but the remainder of the French line was unable to progress. As the British centre and left were now subjected to heavy cross fire from concealed machine guns, it was found impossible to maintain the ground gained, and therefore, about 11 A.M., the whole line withdrew to its former trenches.

The net result of the operations was the repulse of the Turks and the infliction upon them of very heavy losses. At first we had them fairly on the run, and had it not been for those inventions of the devil—machine guns and barbed wire—which suit the Turkish character and tactics to perfection, we should not have stopped short of the crest of Achi Babi. As it was, all brigades reported great numbers of dead Turks in front of their lines, and 350 prisoners were left in our hands.

On the 2nd, during the day, the enemy remained quiet, burying his

dead under a red crescent flag, a work with which we did not interfere. Shortly after 9 p.m., however, they made another attack against the whole Allied line, their chief effort being made against the French front, where the ground favoured their approach. The attack was repulsed with loss.

During the night 3rd/4th the French front was again subjected to a heavy attack, which they were able to repulse without assistance from my general reserve.

The day of the 4th was spent in reorganisation, and a portion of the line held by the French, who had lost heavily during the previous night's fighting, was taken over by the 2nd Naval Brigade. The night passed quietly.

During the 5th the Lancashire Fusilier Brigade of the East Lancashire Division was disembarked and placed in reserve behind the British left.

Orders were issued for an advance to be carried out next day, and these and the three days' battle which ensued will be dealt with in my next despatch.

The losses, exclusive of the French, during the period covered by this despatch, were, I regret to say, very severe, numbering:—

177 officers and 1,990 other ranks killed.

412 officers and 7,807 other ranks wounded.

13 officers and 3,580 other ranks missing.

From a technical point of view it is interesting to note that my Administrative Staff had not reached Mudros by the time when the landings were finally arranged. All the highly elaborate work involved by these landings was put through by my General Staff, working in collaboration with Commodore Roger Kayes, C.B., M.V.O., and the naval transport officers allotted for the purpose by Vice-Admiral de Robeck. Navy and Army carried out these combined duties with that perfect harmony which was indeed absolutely essential to success.

Throughout the events I have chronicled the Royal Navy has been father and mother to the Army. Not one of us but realises how much he owes to Vice-Admiral de Robeck; to the warships, French and British; to the destroyers, mine sweepers, picket boats, and to all their dauntless crews, who took no thought of themselves, but risked everything to give their soldier comrades a fair run in at the enemy.

Throughout these preparations and operations Monsieur le Général d'Amade has given me the benefit of his wide experiences of war, and has afforded me, always, the most loyal and energetic support. The landing of Kum Kale, planned by me as a mere diversion to distract the attention of the enemy, was transformed by the Commander of the Corps Expéditionnaire de l'Orient into a brilliant operation which secured some substantial results. During the fighting which followed the landing of the French Division at Sedd-el-Bahr no troops could have acquitted themselves more creditably under very trying circumstances, and under very heavy losses, than those working under the orders of Monsieur le Général d'Amade.

Lieutenant-General Sir W. R. Birdwood, K.C.S.I., C.B., C.I.E., D.S.O., was in command of the detached landing of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps above Gaba Tepe, as well as during the subsequent

fighting. The fact of his having been responsible for the execution of these difficult and hazardous operations—operations which were crowned with a very remarkable success—speaks, I think, for itself.

Major-General A. G. Hunter-Weston, C.B., D.S.O., was tried very highly, not only during the landings, but more especially in the day and night attacks and counter-attacks which ensued. Untiring, resourceful, and ever more cheerful as the outlook (on occasion) grew darker, he possesses, in my opinion, very special qualifications as a commander of troops in the field.

Major-General W. P. Braithwaite, C.B., is the best Chief of the General Staff it has ever been my fortune to encounter in war. I will not pile epithets upon him. I can say no more than what I have said, and I can certainly say no less.

I have many other names to bring to notice for the period under review, and these will form the subject of a separate report at an early date.

I have the honour to be

Your Lordship's most obedient Servant,

IAN HAMILTON, *General*,

Commanding Mediterranean Expeditionary Force.

DESPATCH RECEIVED BY THE ADMIRALTY FROM VICE-ADMIRAL JOHN M. DE ROBECK, REPORTING THE LANDING OF THE ARMY ON THE GALLIPOLI PENINSULA, APRIL 25-26.

TRIAD, July 1, 1915.

SIR—

I have the honour to forward herewith an account of the operations carried out on the 25th and 26th April, 1915, during which period the Mediterranean Expeditionary Force was landed and firmly established in the Gallipoli Peninsula.

The landing commenced at 4.20 A.M. on 25th. The general scheme was as follows:—

Two main landings were to take place, the first at a point just north of Gaba Tepe, the second on the southern end of the peninsula. In addition a landing was to be made at Kum Kale, and a demonstration in force to be carried out in the Gulf of Xeros near Bulair.

The night of the 24th-25th was calm and very clear, with a brilliant moon, which set at 3 A.M.

The first landing, north of Gaba Tepe, was carried out under the orders of Rear-Admiral C. F. Thursby, C.M.G. His squadron consisted of the following ships:—

| Battleships. | Cruiser. | Destroyers. | Seaplane Carrier. | Trawlers. | Balloon Ship. |
|--|-----------------------|---|-----------------------|-----------|---------------|
| <i>Queen London Prince of Wales Triumph Majestic</i> | <i>Bacchante</i> — | <i>Beagle Bulldog Foxhound Scourge Colne Usk Chelmer Ribble</i> | <i>Ark Royal</i> — | 15 | <i>Manica</i> |

To *Queen*, *London*, and *Prince of Wales* was delegated the duty of actually landing the troops. To *Triumph*, *Majestic*, and *Bacchante* the duty of covering the landing by gun-fire.

In this landing a surprise was attempted. The first troops to be landed were embarked in the battleships *Queen*, *London*, and *Prince of Wales*.

The squadron then approached the land at 2.58 A.M. at a speed of 5 knots. When within a short distance of the beach selected for landing the boats were sent ahead. At 4.20 A.M. the boats reached the beach and a landing was effected.

The remainder of the infantry of the covering force were embarked at 10 P.M., 24th.

The troops were landed in two trips, the operation occupying about half an hour, this in spite of the fact that the landing was vigorously opposed, the surprise being only partially effected.

The disembarkation of the main body was at once proceeded with. The operations were somewhat delayed owing to the transports having to remain a considerable distance from the shore in order to avoid the howitzer and field guns' fire brought to bear on them and also the fire from warships stationed in the Narrows, Chanak.

The beach here was very narrow and continuously under shell fire. The difficulties of disembarkation were accentuated by the necessity of evacuating the wounded; both operations proceeded simultaneously. The service was one which called for great determination and coolness under fire, and the success achieved indicates the spirit animating all concerned. In this respect I would specially mention the extraordinary gallantry and dash shown by the 3rd Australian Infantry Brigade (Colonel E. G. Sinclair MacLagan, D.S.O.), who formed the covering force. Many individual acts of devotion to duty were performed by the *personnel* of the Navy; these are dealt with below. Here I should like to place on record the good service performed by the vessels employed in landing the second part of the covering force; the seamanship displayed and the rapidity with which so large a force was thrown on the beach is deserving of the highest praise.

On the 26th the landing of troops, guns and stores continued throughout the day; this was a most trying service, as the enemy kept up an incessant shrapnel fire, and it was extremely difficult to locate the well-concealed guns of the enemy. Occasional bursts of fire from the ships in the Narrows delayed operations somewhat, but these bursts of fire did not last long, and the fire from our ships always drove the enemy's ships away.

The enemy heavily counter-attacked, and though supported by a very heavy shrapnel fire he could make no impression on our line which was every minute becoming stronger. By nightfall on the 26th April our position north of Gaba Tepe was secure.

The landing at the southern extremity of the Gallipoli Peninsula was carried out under the orders of Rear-Admiral R. E. Wemyss, C.M.G., M.V.O., his squadron consisting of the following ships:—

| Battleships. | Cruisers. | Fleet Sweepers. | Trawlers. |
|---|---|-----------------|-----------|
| <i>Swiftsure</i> <i>Implacable</i> <i>Cornwallis</i> <i>Albion</i> <i>Vengeance</i> <i>Lord Nelson</i> <i>Prince George</i> | <i>Euryalus</i> <i>Talbot</i> <i>Minerva</i> <i>Dublin</i> | 6 | 14 |

Landings in this area were to be attempted at five different places; the conditions at each landing varied considerably. The position of beaches is given below.

Position of Beach.—"Y" beach, a point about 7,000 yards north-east of Cape Tekeh. "X" beach, 1,000 yards north-east of Cape Tekeh. "W" beach, Cape Tekeh—Cape Helles. "V" beach, Cape Helles—Seddul Bahr. Camber, Seddul Bahr. "S" beach, Eski-Hissarlik Point.

Taking these landings in the above order:—

Landing at "Y" Beach.—The troops to be first landed, the King's Own Scottish Borderers, embarked on the 24th in the *Amethyst* and *Sapphire* and proceeded with the transports *Southland* and *Braemar Castle* to a position off Cape Tekeh. At 4 A.M. the boats proceeded to "Y" beach, timing their arrival there at 5 A.M., and pulled ashore covered by fire from H.M.S. *Goliath*. The landing was most successfully and expeditiously carried out, the troops gaining the top of the high cliffs overlooking this beach without being opposed; this result I consider due to the rapidity with which the disembarkation was carried out and the well-placed covering fire from ships.

The Scottish Borderers were landed in two trips, followed at once by the Plymouth Battalion Royal Marines. These troops met with severe opposition on the top of the cliffs, where fire from covering ships was of little assistance and, after heavy fighting, were forced to re-embark on the 26th. The re-embarkation was carried out by the followings ships: *Goliath*, *Talbot*, *Dublin*, *Sapphire*, and *Amethyst*. It was most ably conducted by the beach *personnel* and covered by the fire of the warships, who prevented the enemy reaching the edge of the cliff, except for a few snipers.

Landing at "X" Beach.—The 2nd Battalion Royal Fusiliers (two companies and M.G. Section) embarked in *Implacable* on 24th, which ship proceeded to a position off the landing-place, where the disembarkation of the troops commenced at 4.30 A.M., and was completed at 5.15 A.M.

A heavy fire was opened on the cliffs on both sides. The *Implacable* approached the beach, and the troops were ordered to land, fire being continued until the boats were close in to the beach. The troops on board the *Implacable* were all landed by 7 A.M. without any casualties. The nature of the beach was very favourable for the covering fire from ships, but the manner in which this landing was carried out might well serve as a model.

Landing at "W" Beach.—The 1st Battalion Lancashire Fusiliers embarked in *Euryalus* and *Implacable* on the 24th, who proceeded to positions

off the landing-place, where the troops embarked in the boats at about 4 A.M. Shortly after 5 A.M. *Euryalus* approached "W" beach and *Implacable* "X" beach. At 5 A.M. the covering ships opened a heavy fire on the beach, which was continued up to the last moment before landing. Unfortunately this fire did not have the effect on the extensive wire entanglements and trenches that had been hoped for, and the troops, on landing at 6 A.M., were met with a very heavy fire from rifles, machine-guns, and pom-poms, and found the obstructions on the beach undamaged. The formation of this beach lends itself admirably to the defence, the landing-place being commanded by sloping cliffs offering ideal positions for trenches and giving a perfect field of fire. The only weakness in the enemy's position was on the flanks, where it was just possible to land on the rocks and thus enfilade the more important defences. This landing on the rocks was effected with great skill, and some Maxims, cleverly concealed in the cliffs and which completely enfiladed the main beach, were rushed with the bayonet. This assisted to a great extent in the success of the landing, the troops, though losing very heavily, were not to be denied and the beach and the approaches to it were soon in our possession.

The importance of this success cannot be over-estimated; "W" and "V" beaches were the only two of any size in this area on which troops, other than infantry, could be disembarked, and failure to capture this one might have had serious consequences, as the landing at "V" was held up. The beach was being continuously sniped, and a fierce infantry battle was carried on round it throughout the entire day and the following night. It is impossible to exalt too highly the service rendered by the 1st Battalion Lancashire Fusiliers in the storming of the beach; the dash and gallantry displayed were superb. Not one whit behind in devotion to duty was the work of the beach *personnel*, who worked untiringly throughout the day and night, landing troops and stores under continual sniping. The losses due to rifle and machine-gun fire sustained by the boats' crews, to which they had not the satisfaction of being able to reply, bear testimony to the arduous nature of the service.

During the night of the 25th-26th enemy attacked continuously, and it was not till 1 P.M. on the 26th, when "V" beach was captured, that our position might be said to be secure.

The work of landing troops, guns, and stores continued throughout this period and the conduct of all concerned left nothing to be desired.

Landing at "V" Beach.—This beach, it was anticipated, would be the most difficult to capture; it possessed all the advantages for defence which "W" beach had, and in addition the flanks were strongly guarded by the old castle and village of Seddul Bahr on the east and perpendicular cliffs on the west; the whole foreshore was covered with barbed wire entanglements which extended in places under the sea. The position formed a natural amphitheatre with the beach as stage.

The first landing here, as at all other places, was made in boats, but the experiment was tried of landing the remainder of the covering force by means of a collier, the *River Olyde*. This steamer had been specially prepared for the occasion under the directions of Commander Edward Unwin; large ports had been cut in her sides and gangways built whereby

the troops could reach the lighters which were to form a bridge on to the beach.

"V" beach was subjected to a heavy bombardment similarly to "W" beach, with the same result, *i.e.*, when the first trip attempted to land they were met with a murderous fire from rifle, pom-pom, and machine-gun, which was not opened till the boats had cast off from the steamboats.

A landing on the flanks here was impossible and practically all the first trip were either killed or wounded, a few managing to find some slight shelter under a bank on the beach; in several boats all were either killed or wounded; one boat entirely disappeared, and in another there were only two survivors. Immediately after the boats had reached the beach the *River Clyde* was run ashore under a heavy fire rather towards the eastern end of the beach, where she could form a convenient break-water during future landing of stores, etc.

As the *River Clyde* grounded, the lighters which were to form the bridge to the shore were run out ahead of the collier, but unfortunately they failed to reach their proper stations and a gap was left between two lighters over which it was impossible for men to cross; some attempted to land by jumping from the lighter which was in position into the sea and wading ashore; this method proved too costly, the lighter being soon heaped with dead and the disembarkation was ordered to cease.

The troops in the *River Clyde* were protected from rifle and machine-gun fire and were in comparative safety.

Commander Unwin, seeing how things were going, left the *River Clyde* and, standing up to his waist in water under a very heavy fire, got the lighters into position; he was assisted in this work by Midshipman G. L. Drewry, R.N.R., of H.M.S. *Hussar*; Midshipman W. St. A. Malleson, R.N., of H.M.S. *Cornwallis*; Able Seaman W. C. Williams, O.N. 186774 (R.F.R. B.3766), and Seaman R.N.R. George McKenzie Samson, O.N. 2408A, both of H.M.S. *Hussar*.

The bridge to the shore, though now passable, could not be used by the troops, any one appearing on it being instantly shot down, and the men in *River Clyde* remained in her till nightfall.

At 9.50 A.M. *Albion* sent in launch and pinnace manned by volunteer crews to assist in completing bridge, which did not quite reach beach; these boats, however, could not be got into position until dark owing to heavy fire.

It had already been decided not to continue to disembark on "V" beach, and all other troops intended for this beach were diverted to "W."

The position remained unchanged on "V" beach throughout the day, men-of-war and the maxims mounted in *River Clyde* doing their utmost to keep down the fire directed on the men under partial shelter on the beach.

During this period many heroic deeds were performed in rescuing wounded men in the water.

During the night of the 25th-26th the troops in *River Clyde* were able to disembark under cover of darkness and obtain some shelter on the beach and in the village of Seddul Bahr, for possession of which now commenced a most stubborn fight.

The fight continued, supported ably by gun-fire from H.M.S. *Albion*,
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until 1.24 P.M., when our troops had gained a position from which they assaulted hill 141, which dominated the situation. *Albion* then ceased fire, and the hill, with old fort on top, was most gallantly stormed by the troops, led by Lieutenant-Colonel C. H. H. Doughty-Wylie, General Staff, who fell as the position was won. The taking of this hill effectively cleared the enemy from the neighbourhood of the "V" Beach, which could now be used for the disembarkation of the Allied Armies. The capture of this beach called for a display of the utmost gallantry and perseverance from the officers and men of both services—that they successfully accomplished their task bordered on the miraculous.

Landing on the Camber, Seddul Bahr.—One half company Royal Dublin Fusiliers landed here, without opposition, the Camber being "dead ground." The advance from the Camber, however, was only possible on a narrow front, and after several attempts to enter the village of Seddul Bahr this half company had to withdraw after suffering heavy losses.

Landing at "De Totts" "S" Beach.—The 2nd South Wales Borderers (less one company) and a detachment 2nd London Field Company R.E. were landed in boats, convoyed by *Cornwallis*, and covered by that ship and *Lord Nelson*.

Little opposition was encountered, and the hill was soon in the possession of the South Wales Borderers. The enemy attacked this position on the evening of the 25th and during the 26th, but our troops were firmly established, and with the assistance of the covering ships all attacks were easily beaten off.

Landing at Kum Kale.—The landing here was undertaken by the French.

It was most important to prevent the enemy occupying positions in this neighbourhood, whence he could bring gun-fire to bear on the transports off Cape Helles. It was also hoped that by holding this position it would be possible to deal effectively with the enemy's guns on the Asiatic shore immediately east of Kum Kale, which could fire into Seddul Bahr and De Totts.

The French, after a heavy preliminary bombardment, commenced to land at about 10 A.M., and by the afternoon the whole of their force had been landed at Kum Kale. When they attempted to advance to Yeni Shehr, their immediate objective, they were met by heavy fire from well-concealed trenches, and were held up just south of Kum Kale village.

During the night of the 25th-26th the enemy made several counter-attacks, all of which were easily driven off; during one of these 400 Turks were captured, their retreat being cut off by the fire from the battleships.

On the 26th, when it became apparent that no advance was possible without entailing severe losses and the landing of large reinforcements, the order was given for the French to withdraw and re-embark, which operation was carried out without serious opposition.

I now propose to make the following more general remarks on the conduct of the operations:—

From the very first the co-operation between Army and Navy was most happy: difficulties which arose were quickly surmounted, and nothing could have exceeded the tactfulness and forethought of Sir Ian Hamilton and his staff.

The loyal support which I received from Contre-Amiral E. P. A. Guepratte simplified the task of landing the Allied Armies simultaneously.

The Russian fleet was represented by H.I.R.M.S. *Askold*, which ship was attached to the French squadron. Contre-Amiral Guepratte bears testimony to the value of the support he received from Captain Ivanoff, especially during the landing and re-embarkation of the French troops at Kum Kale.

The detailed organisation of the landing could not be commenced until the Army Headquarters returned from Egypt on the 10th April. The work to be done was very great, and the naval *personnel* and material available small.

Immediately on the arrival of the Army Staff at Mudros, committees, composed of officers of both services, commenced to work out the details of the landing operations, and it was due to these officers' indefatigable efforts that the expedition was ready to land on the 22nd April. The keenness displayed by the officers and men resulted in a good standard of efficiency, especially in the case of the Australian and New Zealand Corps, who appear to be natural boatmen.

Such actions as the storming of the Seddul Bahr position by the 29th Division must live in history for ever; innumerable deeds of heroism and daring were performed; the gallantry and absolute contempt for death displayed alone made the operations possible.

At Gaba Tepe the landing and the dash of the Australian Brigade for the cliffs was magnificent—nothing could stop such men. The Australian and New Zealand Army Corps in this, their first battle, set a standard as high as that of any army in history, and one of which their countrymen have every reason to be proud.

In closing this despatch I beg to bring to their Lordships' notice the names of certain officers and men who have performed meritorious service. The great traditions of His Majesty's Navy were well maintained, and the list of names submitted of necessity lacks those of many officers and men who performed gallant deeds unobserved and therefore unnoted. This standard was high, and if I specially mention one particular action it is that of Commander Unwin and the two young officers and two seamen who assisted him in the work of establishing communication between *River Clyde* and the beach. Rear-Admirals R. E. Wemyss, C.M.G., M.V.O., C. F. Thursby, C.M.G., and Stuart Nicholson, M.V.O., have rendered invaluable service. Throughout they have been indefatigable in their efforts to further the success of the operations, and their loyal support has much lightened my duties and responsibilities.

I have at all times received the most loyal support from the Commanding Officers of His Majesty's ships during an operation which called for the display of great initiative and seamanship.

[Here follows a list of officers and men specially mentioned.]

I have, etc.

J. M. de ROBECK,
Vice-Admiral.

RETROSPECT

OF

LITERATURE, SCIENCE AND ART IN 1915.

LITERATURE.

THE Literature of the year, like every other department of national life, was dominated by the social conditions arising out of the war. Although the output of books was far less than in a nominal year of peace, yet there was no general collapse of publishing, such as was freely prophesied at the beginning of hostilities. At the end of 1914 Mr. Gosse had predicted in the *Edinburgh Review* that publishing would come to a standstill as soon as the books arranged for before the war had been disposed of. But no such untoward event occurred. At the beginning of the year many books connected with the war were selling in large numbers; and later on the public bought works to a surprising extent that had no connexion whatever with current events. Books suffered, of course, very severely from the competition of newspapers for the attention of the reading public; but the need for distraction soon began to be felt: and the stoppage of many of the more frivolous amusements turned the public mind to the more serious and more suitable recreation of reading. At the end of November a fortnight's campaign was initiated by the Publishers' Association for the purpose of encouraging book-buying. A considerable sum of money was spent, and the result was on the whole considered satisfactory.

In France, publishing was far more seriously affected than in England: the organisation for book-distribution in particular broke down completely for want of men. Nevertheless there were signs of a revival. The famous literary fortnightly, *Le Mercure de France*, which had been suspended at the beginning of the war, resumed publication as a monthly on April 1, and by a series of brilliant articles continued to justify its reputation as the leading literary review of Europe. The *Mercure* and the literary world at large suffered a very severe loss in the death of Remy de Gourmont from cerebral hæmorrhage on the evening of September 27. It is necessary to say of him here only this: that probably no other living writer united the same profundity of philosophic insight with a style of equal literary purity. Remy de Gourmont was a man of whom few exist in any age; and we sincerely sympathise with the *Mercure* on the loss of so incomparable a thinker and writer.

Of the English literary reviews, the *Edinburgh* continued to pay most attention to social and political topics. The remarkable series of articles on the Government and the War, written by the editor, still raised much

interest among reading people. Notwithstanding its pre-eminent authority in the realm of public life, the *Edinburgh* never ceased to bestow a reasonable share of its space on subjects of literary interest.

The following pages deal with a selection of about fifty of the best books published in the course of the year : books that have been selected as typical of the highest class of literature presented to the public in 1915. They are divided into the three groups : General Literature, Books on the War, and Fiction.

I. GENERAL LITERATURE.

British Birds, written and illustrated by A. Thorburn, F.Z.S. (Longmans, Green & Co.), might better be described as a book of the century than as a book of the year. For the coloured illustrations of British birds are the finest that have yet been produced in this country, or are likely to be produced for a very long time to come. Up to the present year, Lord Lilford's illustrations have been rightly regarded as the most perfect representations of British birds yet attained. Many of them indeed were painted by Mr. Thorburn himself. For many years Lord Lilford's work has been out of print and unobtainable for less than forty or fifty guineas, more than double the original price. The present work is published at six guineas, and it may safely be said that the illustrations are much superior even to those of Lord Lilford. Mr. Thorburn's life-long study of birds appears to have conferred upon him an extraordinary capacity for catching the typical and distinctive attitudes of the birds he portrays. All but a few of the rarest species are drawn from life, and in the attitudes with which all bird-lovers are thoroughly familiar. To an apparently instinctive appreciation of bird-life, Mr. Thorburn adds a very remarkable artistic power : and the processes of illustration and reproduction have been so greatly improved since Lord Lilford's time that he has been able to obtain most accurate and beautiful expressions of his art. The work moreover is finely got up, in a handsome and eminently suitable binding.

The work is in four volumes, two of which have been published during the present year, while the remaining two are due to appear in the course of 1916. Although the illustrations are the outstanding feature of the book, each bird is separately and briefly described in the accompanying letter-press. Mr. Thorburn confesses that these descriptions are compiled from the ordinary text-books. They nevertheless give about each bird all the information that the ordinary person is likely to require. It has apparently been the author's aim to illustrate every bird that rightly comes under the heading of "British." Accordingly he has to deal with over 400 species. He has adopted the plan of putting as far as possible the birds of one family on the same plate, there being twenty plates in each volume. A happy result of this plan is that it is possible to compare very similar birds and note their points of resemblance and difference. The classification adopted is that of Howard Saunders' "*Manual*." Of the two volumes now published the first is wholly devoted to the *Passeres*. It is not easy to single out one plate rather than another as being of special excellence, but no one can fail to be delighted by Plate 10, containing the seven kinds of British titmice. The Dartford warbler on Plate 6 brings back lively recollections of long searches on gorse-clad commons for a sight of this elusive bird ; while the lovely

wall-creeper on Plate 11 cannot but cause regret for the extreme rarity of that species.

Vol. II. completes the *Passeres*, and includes also the *Picariæ* and *Accipitres*, the cormorants and herons. Attention moves of necessity to Plate 24, the woodpeckers and the kingfisher, whose bright colours give rise to a truly beautiful picture. In one corner is the wryneck, giving out his loud call. Mr. Thorburn has caught his attitude to perfection. The hoopoe on Plate 25 is unfortunately more reminiscent of the sandy plains of North Africa than of English counties. Great judgment is shown in the division of the owls in three plates: the first containing the four well-known British species (the illustration of the long-eared owl is perhaps the least to be praised); the second the rarer visitants, and the third the eagle-owl by himself. The remaining volumes of this very remarkable work will be awaited with eagerness by every one who has the smallest interest in or knowledge of natural history.

My Shrubs, by Eden Phillpotts (John Lane, The Bodley Head), is a description written in delightful language of the shrubs cultivated by the author in his garden. The shrubs are dealt with in alphabetical order under their systematic names, the author writing affectionately of each of them in turn. There are, moreover, admirable illustrations of fifty among the several hundred *genera* dealt with. "Your true gardener," says Mr. Phillpotts, "naturally seeks and aspires to the unattainable, and since my patch is but little larger than a table-cloth, my desire has always been towards trees." . . . "Trees, then, being out of the question here, I have bowed to fate in this matter, and fallen back upon shrubs, or trees that will preserve shrubby dimensions." And on these he has certainly produced a charming work.

Dew-Ponds: History, Observation and Experiment, by Edward A. Martin (T. Werner Laurie), contains the record of experiments made by the author with the aid of a grant from the Government Grant Committee of the Royal Society. The term "dew-pond" is applied to certain high-level ponds, which show a peculiar resistance to being dried up, and in fact continue to hold water when other ponds at lower levels have run dry. They are chiefly found on the chalk downs in the South of England; and their name arises from the common belief that the source of their supply in dry weather is the dew. The author confesses that he himself held this belief when he started his investigations. But observation and experiment lasting over a period of three years led him to change his views. He now reaches the conclusion that the constancy of the water in dew-ponds is a consequence of fogs. In the summer months, when evaporation greatly exceeds rainfall, the downland fogs come to the rescue, possibly being precipitated in hollow spaces by the silent discharge of downland electricity from the rounded surfaces of the downs. The author considers therefore that the local names of "mist-pond" and "fog-pond" (at Hampstead) are more appropriate than "dew-pond." "Chemical analyses of a number of upland pond-waters have shown that they contain a large proportion of sodium chloride and other salts. These must have been brought in from the sea, and the particles must be present in comparatively large quantities in downland air. These are seized upon as nuclei of condensation when the night-mists form on the downs, and as the mists blow up in the early-morning

from the sea they pass across the pond-depressions and are deposited in quantities there." Of this theory it need only be said here that the author supports it with a large amount of evidence. The book is interesting to read, and is illustrated with photographs of a number of typical dew-ponds. It goes far towards clearing up a problem of singular interest and fascination.

Delane of the Times, by Sir Edward Cook (Constable & Co. Ltd.), is the first of the series of biographies, entitled "Makers of the Nineteenth Century," edited by Mr. Basil Williams. Mr. Williams states in his preface that the period to be covered by the series extends from 1830, when the work of the French Revolution was almost accomplished, till the death of Queen Victoria in 1902. The intention is to embrace in the future volumes of the series the lives of all the eminent men and women whose chief work was performed during those seventy years. The series is designed "as a complete whole, or rather microcosm of the age which it covers." Yet each volume will be complete and independent in itself, and each separate writer will have within wide limits a free hand to deal with his subject as he thinks proper. This very wise latitude should go far towards ensuring the success of a series which covers one of the most important epochs of progress in the whole of British history. Turning to the volume now before us, it can only be said that if its successors reach the same high standard of literature and biography as is here presented to us, the success of the series is assured. Sir Edward Cook has accomplished his task with brilliance. Delane edited *The Times* for thirty-six years, and is one of the most characteristic figures of the age under review. His life had already been written by Dasent; and Sir Edward Cook has departed somewhat from the limitations of pure biography. It includes to some extent a history of *The Times* newspaper, and it is further to some extent a chronicle of European affairs during the years of Delane's editorship. Sir Edward has borne in mind that he was to deal with Delane as a "maker of the nineteenth century"; and hence that he must be considered mainly in his capacity as editor of *The Times*. There is prefixed to the work a portrait of Delane himself; and we understand that this plan will be maintained in the subsequent volumes, which are promised for 1916 and future years. It is to be hoped that the conditions of war will not interfere with the rapid continuance of so well-conceived a scheme.

A Life of Robert Cecil, by Algernon Cecil (John Murray), may be taken as a type of the best class of biography published during the year. The author deals with his ancestor, the first Earl of Salisbury, who was born in 1563 and died in 1612. The book is one which can be most profitably read by those who already possess some preliminary knowledge of the history of the period. Indeed it is almost inevitable in a book of this nature that it should infringe one of Sir Sidney Lee's fundamental canons of biography—that namely which condemns the mixture of biography with history. Without some infusion of history, such a book could scarcely be followed by any but the specialist in the period dealt with. The life is written with affection, but without bias. Mr. Cecil indeed finds it necessary to defend his illustrious ancestor from various charges; and it is occasionally difficult to avoid recalling the saying *Qui s'excuse s'accuse*. His knowledge of the time is full, and his ability beyond question. His remarks in the course of the work often disclose a philosophic temperament, and his citations from older authors are apt and interesting. "Bodies politic being subject as much as

natural to dissolution by divers means, there are undoubtedly more estates overthrown through diseases bred within themselves than through violence from abroad ; because our manner is always to cast a doubtful and a more suspicious eye towards that over which we know we have least power ; and therefore the fear of external dangers causeth forces at home to be the more united ; it is to all sorts a kind of bridle, it maketh virtuous minds watchful, it holdeth contrary dispositions in suspense, and it setteth those wits on work in better things which would be employed on worse." This quotation from Hooker's " Ecclesiastical Polity " affords at least some hope that great benefits may cancel part of the evils wrought by war.

My March to Timbuctoo, by General Joffre (Chatto & Windus), is prefaced by an interesting biographical account by Ernest Dimnet. The narrative of General Joffre himself has no exceptional literary qualities ; and is clearly the production of a man of action, who says what he has to say in plain and simple language, with no attempt to ornament or to excite the imagination of the reader. It describes the expedition made by Major Joffre (as he was then) to Timbuctoo in 1893-4. On his return he made a military report which was published in 1895 in the *Revue du Génie*, the translation of which constitutes the main part of the present book. Both the biography and the specimen of the great General's writing are of much interest to all who desire to know something of the most conspicuous of the soldiers of France.

Treitschke's History of Germany in the Nineteenth Century, translated by Eden and Cedar Paul, with an introduction by William Harbutt Dawson (Jarrold & Sons ; G. Allen & Unwin Ltd.), is the first volume of the translation of Treitschke's monumental five-volume work. The history opens with an account of Germany after the Peace of Westphalia : and in the present volume is carried down to the conclusion of the War of Liberation. It is needless to comment on this famous work : it is indeed remarkable that its translation into English should have been so long delayed. Nevertheless it must be admitted that the interest of the work is very much less for an Englishman than it is for a German. It is perhaps necessary that every great history should be written under the inspiration of some ideal or theory of social evolution. Gibbon, Hume, Grote, etc., were all animated by philosophic opinions which lit up and vivified the facts that they recorded. There is no question about the thread of philosophy upon which Treitschke hung his story. He was animated by the purest spirit of Prussian patriotism : he embodied all that was good and bad in the ideals of Prussianism. Conspicuous among these is the immense hold of militarism upon the people. Of all the great historians, none have been so much carried away as Treitschke by the ideal of universal military service and the glorification of war. " There arose in Prussia a new glory of German history : a people in arms." The intense emotionalism of Treitschke's history results in two main features : the excellence of its literary style, and the prejudice which characterises every conclusion of the book. Such a man is utterly incapable of unbiassed judgment. The work is partial and unscientific ; its infectious idealism has assisted the spread of false sentiments throughout the German people. The danger of such a book is proportional to the ability and erudition of the author, which in the present case were very profound. We are delighted to see the translation of a book which, however we may dislike its

ideals, counts for much in the psychology of the German nation, and explains much that might otherwise be difficult to understand.

A History of Babylon, by Leonard W. King (Chatto & Windus), is the second volume of the author's **History of Babylonia and Assyria**. The first volume, telling the story of the early races of Babylonia from prehistoric times to the foundation of the Babylonian monarchy, has already been published. The third volume, dealing with the history of Assyria, is still in preparation. Each volume is thus to a great extent independent of the others; and the present history of Babylon is a complete work in itself, carrying the reader from the foundation of the monarchy to the Persian conquest. It covers the whole of the dynastic period, and completes the history of the Southern Kingdom, commenced in the first volume. At a time when British troops are in occupation of Southern Mesopotamia, exceptional interest attaches to the earlier history of that country. The author deals with everything known on the subject of Babylon, not merely the formal history of that remarkable State, but the condition of the people, the *status* of women, slavery, and the influence of Babylon on the subsequent development of civilisation. He incorporates in the book the great advances in knowledge that have resulted from the recent excavations, as a result of which the main features of this most famous city can now be reconstituted, and indeed are exhibited in the fine series of illustrations for which the volume is remarkable. Perhaps one of the most interesting parts of the book is that dealing with the social customs of the Babylonians. The penalty for adultery on the part of a wife was drowning; but if the charge was brought by the husband himself, a denial on oath by the wife was sufficient to establish her innocence. If the charge was brought by others, she was submitted to the ordeal by water. She was plunged into the Euphrates; if she drowned, her guilt was regarded as established; but if she succeeded in reaching the bank, it was taken as a proof of innocence. Babylon was the originator of the science of astronomy: and we still retain relics of Babylonian ingenuity in the twelve divisions of time on the dials of clocks and watches. But a reliable standard of time could not be attained until the movements of the planets and of the moon had been determined with some accuracy; and this was not attained till the later period of Babylonian history extending from the sixth to the first century B.C. The philosopher Thales of Miletus is said to have foretold the total eclipse of the sun which occurred in the course of the battle on the Halys in 585 B.C. In every respect this book represents in the most complete form the whole of existing knowledge with regard to ancient Babylon.

Greek Philosophy, Part I., Thales to Plato, by John Burnet (Macmillan & Co. Ltd.), comes from the author of "Early Greek Philosophy," and was therefore certain to be both learned and interesting. The author firmly adheres to the Greek method of spelling proper names: not only refusing to put "c" for "k," but also keeping the "o" in names like Demokritos and Herodotos. Professor Burnet defends the priority of the Greeks over the Egyptians and Babylonians as the founders of science and philosophy. He holds that those two older civilisations attained little more than a few empirical generalisations, and that the origin of science is not in any way traceable to their work. Under these circumstances, the beginning of true learning must be attributed to Thales, the earliest Greek philosopher, whose active

life fell mainly between the years 600 and 550 B.C. Although the first of the philosophers and men of science, he appears to have been well endowed even in practical affairs, for it is related that he foresaw a scarcity of olives and made a corner in oil. The progress of science followed rapidly upon its foundation. Early in the sixth century B.C. the Greeks had learnt the primitive system of mensuration, which was all the Egyptians could teach them. A century later they were studying on a firm scientific basis arithmetical and geometrical progressions, plane geometry, and the elements of harmonies. Yet another century, and we find solid and spherical geometry, which was soon followed by conic sections. In the same way, the Greeks learnt from the Babylonians the fact that eclipses recur at definite intervals. In less than fifty years they discovered that the earth swings free in space, and very shortly afterwards that it was spherical. In less than a hundred years they knew that the earth was a planet, and had given a true account of eclipses: and very little later they (or some of them) recognised that the sun was the centre of the planetary system. Concurrently with these astonishing advances in mathematical and astronomical knowledge, they made no less astonishing progress in the study of anatomy and natural history. Whether we look to their powers of observation or of reasoning, we must regard them as a race of geniuses, and their civilisation as a sudden inflorescence of brilliancy, which perhaps has never been paralleled at any other period of the world's history. Professor Burnet has succeeded in writing a volume of great interest and importance. Nearly half the work is devoted to Plato; and of the remainder nearly half again to Sokrates. Of each philosopher, a biography is given, as well as a discussion and description of his philosophy. Professor Burnet appears to attach less importance than some people to the speculations of Demokritos: but in his case as in many others it is difficult to form a just estimate on account of the scarcity of the materials. It is a happy sign of the detachment of philosophic thought that such a book can be issued in the present year.

Politics and Crowd-Morality, by Arthur Christensen, translated from the Danish by A. Cecil Curtis (Williams & Norgate), is effectively an attempt to construct a philosophy of politics. This exceedingly difficult task is accomplished with sufficient success to justify the inclusion of the book among the leading publications of the year. It carries forward the work to which public attention was first called by Gustave le Bon and G. Tarde. The author expresses the hope that he has escaped from the contagion of party politics; and indeed he has done so to a greater extent than many previous writers on the same subject. Being a native of one of the smaller European States, and near the political centre of gravity of Europe, he has some very exceptional advantages. He is perhaps better able than the French and English writers to take a detached view of events. A philosopher will nearly always be neutral on most current political controversies; and it is much to start from a position which offers little temptation to partisanship. As to the substance of the work, the author studies the psychology of crowds; he points out that the ethics of crowds is centuries behind the ethics of individuals. He traces the power of suggestion, and thus covers ground previously well explored. But he does much more; he points out the fundamental incompatibility of Liberty and Equality, and he endeavours to draw a just line between the requirements of the two. It is undoubtedly the case

that for some time past there has been a rising consciousness of the fact that nations must choose between liberty and equality ; for that they cannot have them both. During the present century the social legislation in Western nations has been dominated by the notion of Equality ; but it cannot be said that this movement has been in any way endorsed by philosophers, biologists or economists. For it has been accompanied by a loss of freedom, the results of which are now beginning to appear. The present book at all events is an important contribution to these great problems, and could hardly be dispensed with by a serious student. It is admirably translated ; and we deeply regret to note the death of the translator before the publication of the work.

The Crowd in Peace and War, by Sir Martin Conway (Longmans, Green & Co.), is another important contribution to the study of Social Psychology. The work is very highly original. The author shows little sign of having studied his predecessors in the same field, and no sign at all of having suffered from that neglect. He writes indeed from an altogether novel point of view, full of original observations and displaying a deep insight into human character. Sir Martin Conway points out that in a crowd there is a suppression of all the intellectual elements of mind, and an exaggeration of all the emotional elements. A crowd is hasty, unstable and cruel. Crowds moreover are always suspicious of one another, and inclined to embark upon hostilities. War is thus a manifestation of the crowd instinct ; and Sir Martin is led to condemn altogether the notion that democratic forms of government are a safeguard against war. The experiences of the present time furnish indeed a most convincing proof that wars of democracies are the most virulent of all wars ; and few thinking people have expected to find any relief in the campaign now being conducted for the establishment of democratic control in the sphere of diplomacy. Sir Martin Conway, like the author of the book noted above, points out the incompatibility of liberty and equality. He draws a distinction between liberty and freedom ; and he points out that liberty of the individual is highly repellent to any crowd. Since Government is the voice of the crowd, liberty is likewise repellent to Government ; and we are again brought up against the necessity of drawing the line between the claims of the crowd and that of the individual. In general Sir Martin emphasises the need for liberty far more than is usual in books of this character. Subordination, he says, may be excellent for the common run of mankind ; but it is fatal to the higher types of individual, upon whom the progress of the world depends. A crowd will tolerate no differences. One member of it is the equal of any other member ; the principle of equality is supreme. The voice of the crowd is illustrated by the liquor regulations of the present year. Because drunkenness affects a small minority of the community, therefore the whole community has to be placed under common restrictions. Each class has to bear, not only the burdens peculiar to itself, but the burdens of all other classes as well. The tendency of the crowd is to reduce all individuals to its own level, and thereby to ruin all hope of social progress. One illustration of a crowd is provided in the present volume, which must be regarded as one of the most important pioneer works yet produced on the subject.

A History of Philosophy, by Clement C. J. Webb ; **Political Thought in England from Herbert Spencer to the Present Day**, by Ernest Barker ;

Belgium, by R. C. K. Ensor; **Milton**, by John Bailey (Williams & Norgate), constitute four important additions to the "Home University Library." It would be difficult to say better of them than that they fully come up to the high standard of this most admirable series. Mr. John Bailey's volume on Milton may perhaps be especially singled out as a model of excellence, conspicuous even in the "Home University Library." The author, though a fervent admirer of Milton, is not blinded to the many personal defects of that wonderful man. His life is told in a discerning and interesting manner; and Mr. Bailey's own observations are always instructive and valuable. The volume of Mr. Webb on the history of philosophy must have been singularly difficult to write; and the attempt to compress so large a subject into so small a space has been conspicuously successful. The weakest volume of the four is no doubt that of Mr. Barker on political thought in England. The author's extensive knowledge has scarcely preserved him from those prepossessions which are so difficult to banish from any political study. He plainly starts with views of his own, and tends to depreciate the writers from whom he differs. His treatment of Herbert Spencer does not disclose a very deep insight into the methods of that philosopher; the style of the book moreover is often involved. The publication of the volume on Belgium is exceptionally well timed. Mr. Ensor describes the country, the people, their history, constitution and politics, their art and literature. As a well-written handbook of information in small compass, it would not easily be surpassed.

Nationalism and War in the Near East (by a Diplomatist), edited by Lord Courtney of Penwith (Oxford: Clarendon Press), is published under the auspices of the Division of Economics and History of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. The author, though he remains anonymous, is plainly a writer of wide knowledge and exceptional ability: and his study of the causes and results of the Balkan Wars is profound as well as interesting. Whether he establishes his main conclusion is a question on which readers will think differently. "A balance of military power abroad and a preponderance of militarist policy at home were treacherous foundations for European peace. But they might have lasted long enough to dissociate European nationalism finally from war, but for two factors. The first and most important of the two was the failure of European democracy to assert its control over diplomacy." It still remains a questionable assumption whether democracies are so peaceable as their admirers believe. Is not the present war a conflict of peoples and of democracies, rather than of governments? As the author himself well says: "Yesterday we Europeans sought peace by preparing war: to-day we seek peace by proclaiming war: to-morrow we shall seek peace by prosecuting war to the bitter end. But what has war to do with peace? If only we had known, even we, in this our day, the things that belonged to our peace! but now they are hid from our eyes."

A History of Economic Doctrines, by Charles Gide and Charles Rist (George G. Harrap & Co.), is a translation of the second or 1913 edition of the well-known French work. The translation has been admirably carried out by Mr. R. Richards under the direction of the late Professor William Smart. There has long been a need for such a work in the English language; and notwithstanding that the present volume is on the whole written from a French standpoint, it will be almost indispensable to English students of

economics. The book divides the doctrines with which it deals into five epochs. The first includes the founders of Classical political economy, with the Physiocrats, Adam Smith, Say, Malthus and Ricardo. The second comprises the first half of the nineteenth century, and devotes one chapter in turn to Sismondi, Saint-Simon, the Associative Socialists, List, and Proudhon. The third epoch is that of John Stuart Mill and Bastiat. The fourth deals with the dissenters from the Liberalism of the previous epoch : the Historical School and the State-Socialists, Marxism and Christian Socialism. The fifth epoch comprises the most modern doctrines. This learned survey of the field of political economy forcibly thrusts upon our attention the question of the true value of economics. Cournot used to declare that the influence exerted by economists on the course of events was comparable to that exerted by grammarians on the evolution of language. A problem of fundamental importance is as to how far the "laws" of economics are rooted in nature, and how far they are susceptible of modification by human interference. The science in any case can hardly be applied to practical politics in isolation from other points of view. The doings of mankind arise from multitudinous motives. Only some of these are taken into consideration by economics. Others, and some of the most important, remain outside. There is therefore a pressing necessity for a closer development and limitation of the science, and if possible for an approximation towards other sciences implicated, and especially psychology. The large and dignified survey of the field in the present work should afford a considerable impetus to further research and to broadening knowledge.

The System of National Finance, by E. Hilton Young, M.P. (Smith, Elder & Co.), furnishes a complete account of the system on which the financial business of the nation is conducted at the present time. This exceedingly complicated subject is dealt with in an admirably lucid and valuable manner. Mr. Young's knowledge of the financial system of the country penetrates down to details of the smallest kind, and must be the product of great industry as well as of unusual ability. Notwithstanding the author's expert knowledge of the subject, he has succeeded in writing in such a way as to interest any one who knew nothing at all of the subject before. Although information is the main purpose of the book, it is accompanied with criticism of a sensible and useful kind. In particular Mr. Young's observations on financial procedure in the House of Commons deserve careful consideration. He points out that the whole procedure of Parliament is designed to prevent evils and abuses which were dangerous enough in former times, but have now ceased to exist. On the other hand, new dangers have arisen ; and upon these the current procedure furnishes no adequate check. The book is provided with an index which constitutes it an excellent work of reference. It can hardly be denied that it is very desirable that the general public should take more interest than they do in the financial affairs of the nation ; and Mr. Young's book provides in a readable form all the information necessary to enable them to do so.

First Principles of Production, by J. Taylor Peddie (Longmans, Green & Co.), is a study of the first principles of production and the relation of science to industry. More than half the book is written by other contributors called in by Mr. Peddie. These include one chapter on the Co-operation of Science and Industry, by S. Roy Illingworth ; one chapter on

the Steel Industry, by William Lorimer; one chapter on the Chemical Industries of Germany, by Professor Percy Frankland, F.R.S.; and one chapter on the Influence of Brain-power on History and Industry, by Sir Norman Lockyer, K.C.B., F.R.S. This chapter is an abridgment of Sir Norman's address to the British Association in 1903, and its value is enhanced by notes on the present position by Professor R. A. Gregory. The main purpose of the work is to lay down a scheme of National Economics on the lines adopted by the Institute of Industry and Science. The author points out that the conflict of nations is determined as much by their industrial development as by the magnitude of their armaments, which itself depends on industry. He desires therefore to establish an improved organisation of British industry; he wants to mobilise our industry, especially in view of the keen competition for foreign trade which will ensue at the termination of the war. The author regards it as quite clear that Germany will be defeated, and be compelled to pay heavy war costs and indemnities to her opponents. This involves a reduction in the standard of wages and living prevailing in Germany prior to the declaration of war; and that again implies a diminished cost of production. To meet these new conditions, British manufacturers must organise their resources to a higher degree of efficiency than heretofore, and it is to assist them in this aim that the present book is produced. Mr. Peddie endeavours to exclude all political controversy; his only concern is the development of British industry; for that purpose he lays great stress upon the necessity for a closer co-operation between science and industry. The book is indeed especially valuable on account of its emphasis of the truth that the progress of industry is dependent upon a proper utilisation of the conclusions and methods of science.

On the Relation of Imports to Exports, by J. Taylor Peddie (Longmans, Green & Co.), is in some respects a sequel to the book just reviewed. We are informed that the previous work has been largely instrumental in bringing about the formation of a strong Industrial Research Committee, under the auspices of the Government, who have placed a sum of 30,000*l.* at its disposal for the purpose. We are also informed that most of the Cabinet and ex-Cabinet Ministers have bought copies of that book. But in the present work there is no longer any attempt to exclude politics; for the work is in the main an attack upon Free Trade, and the question of Free Trade belongs to the sphere of politics. The author describes the attitude of Free Traders as follows: "Whatever may happen in the external world does not concern us. We will agree to no proposals designed for the nation's welfare and its efficiency or safety which conflict with the views of Adam Smith or Cobden. We care naught for the improved status of other external nations, even although, as a material factor to be considered, it did not exist in Adam Smith's time or in Cobden's time. Leave us alone. We prefer to live in the abstract, the negation of exact science. We prefer to live in the atmosphere of the eighteenth century: we hate to be disillusioned." The impartial reviewer must observe that he has never yet met a Free-trader who argued as Mr. Peddie alleges; it seems indeed that he has not understood the arguments preferred against his position. The book consists of two essays, one on the relation of exports to imports, and the other on foreign exchange. The author propounds a scheme for placing a restriction on imports, in order to correct the adverse balance of trade and rate of exchange with the

United States. He urges economy, the abandonment of individual and national extravagance, an improvement in the quality of our manufactures and an increased honesty of trade. All these suggestions are doubtless excellent; but Mr. Peddie's book would have carried greater authority if he had attempted to state the views of his opponents with a smaller manifestation of political dislike.

Russia's Gift to the World, by J. W. Mackail (Hodder & Stoughton), endeavours to provide the British people with much-needed information as to the value of Russian civilisation, and the achievements of Russians in adding to human knowledge and art. The author comments on the ignorance prevailing in England of the intellectual conditions in Russia. We are informed of their efforts in literature, music, art, drama, mathematics, physical science, biological science, history, philosophy, and sociology: and the low price of the book should ensure a wide circulation, which gives no excuse for continued ignorance on these subjects.

II. BOOKS ON THE WAR.

Nelson's History of the War, by John Buchan (Nelson & Sons, 6 vols.), is an admirable account of the progress of the war, in so far as it was known at the time of writing. It has been written under severe difficulties. The information available to the public and to journalists has been very small; and in the absence of accurate information vast quantities of inaccurate information have been published in the newspapers. Mr. Buchan seems to have been very successful in elucidating the main features of the campaign. He would himself, no doubt, be one of the first to confess that a history, in the proper sense of the word, cannot be written during the progress of a war, nor probably till long after its completion. Not only are the facts concealed behind an impenetrable screen, but during the heat of battle it is quite impossible to attain that frigidly impartial attitude which is so essential to the true historian. A history of the war such as that now under review falls rather in the sphere of high-class journalism. Its successive volumes constitute a running chronicle of events, recorded and interpreted more rationally than is possible in newspapers or other periodical publications. As such, Mr. Buchan's book is eminently readable—pleasant in style, and interesting in substance. A preface to the first volume is contributed by Lord Rosebery. The publishers deserve all praise for the form in which this book has been issued. Its succession of 1s. volumes are very well got up, and embody the best connected record of the war hitherto written.

The French Official Review of the First Six Months of the War, as issued by Reuter's Agency (Constable & Co.), is a document of very great interest. It is, of course, written purely from the French point of view. It sets forth the original plans of General Joffre, and the progress of events which caused their gradual modification. The French mobilisation had to be re-arranged at the very outset in order to meet the unexpected German advance through Belgium. This outspoken volume admits the failure of various of the original French commanders; it records their supersession and the rapid promotion of junior officers. A minute survey is made of the condition of the French Army, as well as of the German Army, with the view of showing that the superiority in men and *matériel* must in course

of time gradually pass away from the side of the enemy. For this reason the French commanders were prepared to wait before undertaking a serious offensive against the Germans. It was estimated that after the first six months of war the German losses were double the French ; this fact being attributed to the superiority of the French artillery and to the German method of attacking in comparatively close formation. It is assumed in this volume that the German plan was to throw all her forces into action at the beginning of the war in one great offensive against France. That offensive having failed, it is only a question of time till the enemy shall be finally worn down.

Eye-Witness's Narrative of the War (Edward Arnold) deals with the period from September 1914 to March 1915, and must constitute the best and indeed almost the only contemporary account of the operations of that period. Like all histories of the war, the records of *Eye-Witness* have had to pass through the censor ; and many of the newspapers have not published them in full. We are now furnished with the complete collection in a cheap form ; and future generations may learn from the book precisely how much the country knew about the operations of war during its most critical period.

War: Its Conduct and Legal Results, by T. Baty and J. H. Morgan (Murray), is a very interesting account of the legal questions arising out of a state of war. Part I. deals with the Crown and the Subject, and gives a full explanation of the emergency legislation adopted in Great Britain at the beginning of the war. The authors deny that there is any such thing as Martial Law, as applied to civilians. Martial Law is merely a name for the particular system of ordinances to which soldiers are subject, in addition to their subjection to the common law of the land. Nevertheless the restrictions upon liberty involved by the Defence of the Realm Acts are more drastic than the ordinary man has any idea of. "Never in our history," say these two authors, "has the Executive assumed such arbitrary power over the life, liberty, and property of British subjects. The net of restriction is now so finely woven, so ingeniously designed, that it enmeshes every activity of the citizen. The military authorities can, by a ukase enlarging the definition of 'specified areas,' deport the whole population of any town or village from one part of the country to another. They could totally close all the public-houses throughout the United Kingdom for every hour of the day for the whole period of the war. They can, on mere suspicion and without proof of any offence having been committed, treat any private citizen as a ticket-of-leave man, and require him to reside where they please and to report himself whenever they think fit. They can, on mere suspicion, arrest any one without warrant, and even equally without warrant enter any house by day or by night. They can punish with penal servitude for life any journalist who speculates as to the plan of campaign of the British or French forces, and with six months' imprisonment if he criticises the dietary or accommodation of the new recruits. They can stop any citizen in the streets, and compel himself to answer questions even though they incriminate himself. They can compel the whole population of England to keep indoors by day as well as by night. They can stop up any road or arrest any vehicle. The private citizen is placed under the absolute orders of any major holding His Majesty's commission. The

military authority issues these orders, and the military authority decides whether the citizen has offended against them." The British people are unconscious of the absolute despotism under which they are living—a despotism which could only be justified by the most extreme emergency. Dealing with the laws of war at sea, Dr. Baty and Professor Morgan draw attention to the illegality of the system of mine-laying which was originated by the Germans and adopted later by the British. Neutrals are entitled to travel on the seas where they like, and some blame attaches to them for making no effort at the beginning of war to remove German mines which constituted as great a danger to their own shipping as to British shipping. The authors suggest that neutrals would be fulfilling a plain duty if they were to form a neutral league to clear the seas of British and German mines alike. Other parts of this work deal with every branch of the legal aspects of war. The position is discussed of those unhappy people who inhabit a conquered territory; they are sometimes in so precarious a situation that they are legally liable to be shot by the enemy if they disobey his order, and to be hanged by their own side if they obey it. The book as a whole is a very valuable work, erudite in substance, and yet eminently readable by the general public.

With the German Armies in the West, by Sven Hedin, translated by H. G. de Walterstorff (John Lane), gives an extremely interesting account of the German Armies in France and Flanders. Dr. Hedin, who is widely known in Germany, obtained a permit from Von Moltke, chief of the General Staff, to visit the German lines in the West: and a war-motor was placed at his disposal, in which he was driven by an officer from Berlin to the scene of operations. At that time (September) the Headquarters Staff was situated at Luxemburg: and here he received an invitation to lunch with the Kaiser. As he approached nearer the front, he similarly was entertained by the Crown Prince; and ultimately he penetrated to German batteries in full action. The book is unquestionably of great interest: hitherto the entire operations of war have been carried on behind an impenetrable veil: Sven Hedin moved freely behind the veil, and has recorded freely the sights which met him. It is inevitable that a man who has received the hospitality of the German leaders should be deeply biased in favour of the German cause. The bias is obvious; he speaks of the Kaiser as the most remarkable of living men; and of the Crown Prince with undisguised and naïve flattery. An author, who can see in that wrong-headed youth the numerous virtues ascribed to him, necessarily condemns his own judgment. The bias nevertheless is interesting, as a reflection of the bias of the German nation. He speaks for instance with invariable friendliness of the French; and leaves no doubt of the totally different feeling of hatred with which the British are regarded. He does not deny however that they make brave soldiers; the national characteristics come out curiously in the fact that the British prisoners of war cause far more trouble to the German authorities than the French or Russian prisoners. Whereas the latter have only 4 per cent. of guards, the British need 10 per cent. of their number. The value of Sven Hedin's book is not in the sentiments occasionally expressed, but in the record of his personal observations: and especially of the life of an army immediately behind the firing line.

Reflections of a Non-Combatant, by M. D. Petre (Longmans, Green &

Co.), is the work of a lady imbued with the spirit of humanity and religion. She takes Machiavelli and Mazzini as the types of the two opposite political extremes ; she herself being wholly Mazzinian. She fervently dislikes all forms of militarism, whether it be found in Germany or in this country ; and condemns Professor Cramb for instance as the type of English militaristic thought. Although Miss Petre regards war as a profound and horrible evil, yet her hope is not so much to humanise it as to abolish it. She attaches small importance to those conventions which have been designed to mitigate the natural brutalities of war. *Krieg ist Krieg*. War itself is so horrible a thing that the particular method by which it is waged becomes a matter of minor importance. War is barbarism, and the various shades of its intensity are lost in the general fact of its existence. Miss Petre appeals further for a more philosophic spirit among those who call themselves philosophers. It may be pardonable for the common people to lose their heads during a war ; for a philosopher it is not pardonable. Many of the German professors, notably Haeckel and Eucken, have shown themselves in no wise superior to the common herd. Miss Petre appears to be more surprised at the attitude of the latter than at that of the former. But surely she is mistaken in supposing that the idealist philosopher is any more likely to be a high-minded citizen than the materialist. Of Haeckel it can only be said that he is a very old man ; and that the aged are more liable to be carried away by the infection of surrounding opinion. The final conclusion of the book is that Bismarck and Machiavelli are right in their own plane, but that "if expediency is the last word in purely national politics and war it is not the last word of humanity."

The German War Book, translated with a critical introduction by J. H. Morgan (John Murray), consists of two parts. The first part is written by the translator and furnishes a general view of the manner in which the German authorities consider that war should be conducted. German diplomacy, German culture, and German thought are considered in turn. The second and more important part of the book is a literal translation of the text-book on "The Usages of War by Land" issued by the Great General Staff of the German Army for the guidance of their commanders in the field. Professor Morgan's strictures on German methods of war are exceedingly severe ; and it may be recorded that the publication of the book was simultaneous with the great tide of popular indignation raised by the German submarine "blockade" and the sinking of the *Lusitania*. Professor Morgan has done well to separate his criticisms from the text of the German war-book, and to leave the latter intact to speak for itself. In looking through that work, it is found that the basis of the German doctrine of war is (or was) the radical separation of the combatant from the non-combatant sections of the enemy, and the totally different treatment to be accorded to the two. The main doctrine is that warfare is the business of armies and of soldiers, not of civilians. The object of war is achieved by the defeat of the hostile army, and military measures are directed to that end alone. Civilians are not to be interfered with more than is necessary for the success of the military enterprise. On the other hand, whenever civilians do take part in warfare, they are not to receive the privileges of soldiers. They are liable to immediate death if captured ; and are regarded as fitting objects for punishment for any part they may take in the cam-

paign. Where they show signs of insubordination in occupied territory, they may be kept in order by severe measures. "Certain severities are indispensable in war; nay, more, the only true humanity very often lies in a ruthless application of them." Comment upon these doctrines may take the form of observing that the Germans often seem to have outrun their own limitations in the course of the present war. And then the further philosophic question arises as to whether something may not be said against the humanisation of war. The more humane war becomes, the more practicable will it be. War is the negation of humanity and civilisation. Such is the argument of Miss Maud Petre's book reviewed above; for a just appreciation of the controversy from both sides, the two books should be read in conjunction.

Ordeal by Battle, by Frederick Scott Oliver (Macmillan & Co. Ltd.), is written mainly for the purpose of advocating compulsory military service. It opens with a discussion of the causes of war in general: setting forward the view that war is based upon far deeper sentiments than those merely of economic interest. The spirit of German policy, and the spirit of British policy, are considered in turn: but the main division of the book is the last, dealing with Democracy and National Service. The writer examines one by one the arguments in favour of our voluntary military system: which he declares is neither voluntary, military, nor a system. He presses the arguments of the National Service League, which advocates conscription on the two grounds that it is necessary for the defence of the Empire, and that it is desirable in order to develop the physique of the population. To those who believe in the introduction of compulsion into our military system, Mr. F. S. Oliver's book will appear to present a very powerful statement of their views. To those on the contrary who do not believe in compulsion, the book will be looked upon as an emotional effusion of a type not altogether dissimilar from that of Treitschke. That persons of the former school are very numerous is shown by the success of this book, which was originally issued in June, and had to be twice reprinted in the course of that month. It probably expresses the views of compulsionists at this period more ably and more accurately than any other single publication.

What is Wrong with Germany? by William Harbutt Dawson (Longmans, Green & Co.), is perhaps the best exposure written of the social and psychological conditions underlying German militarism. Mr. Dawson has an extensive knowledge of German life and German writers; and by numerous quotations from the political literature and newspapers of Germany he has been singularly successful in presenting a vivid picture of the evils which accompany a military state of society. The long extracts from the Kaiser's speeches display that monarch in the light of a superstitious and mediæval bandit, swollen up with an egoism and swashbuckling ambition that could be tolerated by none but the most submissive and authority-ridden of subjects. Mr. Dawson occasionally refers to the German policy as materialistic; but the term, although it has passed into popular phraseology, is hardly appropriate. In every age materialism has been strongly inclined to pacifism: and Germany has long been known not only as the stronghold of militarism, but in philosophy of idealistic thought. Mr. Dawson himself unconsciously admits this when he says that "Treitschke has been by far the greatest power" in moulding German ideas;

and on the very next page that Treitschke "bases his theories of State organisation, purpose, and function upon the political philosophy of Hegel"; and Treitschke himself spoke of Hegel as "the first real political personality amongst German philosophers." Now Hegel represents the most extreme form of anti-materialistic philosophy; and if Mr. Dawson is correct, as he probably is, in tracing the resemblance of German militaristic ideas in Hegel's philosophy, then he is necessarily incorrect in referring to them as materialistic. The point is important on account of the wide repetition of the same fallacy among the public. With regard to the present book, however, it is a small issue, and in no way derogates from the excellent picture of a military society presented by the work.

Kaiser, Krupp and Kultur; Kultur and Catastrophe, by Theodore Andrea Cook (John Murray), are specimens of the volumes circulated by the Central Committee for Patriotic Organisations, the purpose of which is to instruct the people in the causes of the war, and promote a patriotic spirit with a view to its victorious conclusion. The volumes are written by the editor of the *Field*. The first-named is a reprint of many of the leading articles published from August to December 1914 in that newspaper. The second-named is a reprint of articles extending from January to May 1915. In the preface to the first volume Mr. Cook condemns the policy of conscription. "We should never have escaped this war by the simple means of raising a conscript army, and then using the same covert threats of force which constituted the diplomatic overtures of Germany. The production of that army would have been met by a similar increase in the German total, and the effective forces on each side would have been in just the same proportion as they were last August, with the very serious disadvantage that we should not have had the large resources we can now call upon in 1915. . . . Those who prophesy that, even if we get safely through the present struggle without conscription, we are bound to embrace it when war is over, I ask to consider very carefully what the consequences of conscription have proved to be to Germany, not only from the military, but still more from the social point of view. Forty years of relentless drilling, backed by the whole resources of modern invention, and strengthened by an inflexible pride of purpose, have not produced the swift, decisive victory of her arms which alone could justify the sacrifice. What they have produced is the temporary ruin, intellectual and moral, as well as military, of a nation which might have ranked among the highest in the world. Conscription is dead. If the Prussian Junker has killed it, the irony of fate has very suitably selected the only contribution he has ever made to the welfare of his fellow-men." Both these interesting volumes contain illustrations in proof of the German atrocities in Belgium. We understand that Mr. Cook possesses other photographs of a still more convincing kind, though too unpleasant for publication. Both volumes are exceptionally able in substance and well written in style, and fully justify the decision (usually rather dangerous) to give a permanent form to articles otherwise ephemeral.

The Meaning of the War for Germany and Great Britain, an attempt at synthesis, by W. Sanday (Clarendon Press), aims at being a full and impartial account of the various movements and negotiations which preceded the outbreak of war. An introductory section names five results of war which are to be regarded with satisfaction as "Christian bye-products."

First of these is placed seriousness. The Lady Margaret Professor assuredly voices the belief of all thinking people when he condemns the flippant and irresponsible spirit which animated so large a class of the nation before the war. The immense tragedy of war has indeed a few compensating features; and not least among these is the necessity of taking life seriously—a necessity brought home only by contact with hard realities and big responsibilities, from which too many are sheltered in times of peace and prosperity. Professor Sanday then goes on to state first the British and then the German case; after which he attempts a synthesis and looks forward hopefully to an ultimate reconciliation between the two countries. He lays the blame for the war almost entirely on the German nation, which he regards as a great and noble people temporarily gone wrong. Yet he endeavours to write in such a way as to give offence to no German reader. As a vindication of the British cause, the book is plainly superior to the large majority of those that have been so freely issued during the progress of the year.

III. FICTION.

The House of the Dead, by Fyodor Dostoevsky, translated by Constance Garnett (Heinemann), is the fifth volume of the translations of Dostoevsky's novels. It deals with prison life in Siberia, and is told as the autobiography of a man who "had killed his wife in the first year of his marriage, had killed her from jealousy, and had surrendered himself to justice." From being a Russian gentleman and landowner, he became a convict in the second division, and on the expiration of his ten years' sentence spent the rest of his life "humbly and quietly" as a settler in the Siberian town. The book gives a remarkably vivid description of the type of mind found in convict prisons in Siberia. The presence of many of these "criminals" appears to be as often due to misfortune as to real fault; nevertheless there is a large admixture of brutal criminals; and the prison system is such as to degrade and ruin the minds of nearly all. A wonderful picture is thus drawn of men whose souls are dead: men who have shed all the distinctive characters of humanity, and become abandoned to the instincts of beasts. Dostoevsky has already acquired great popularity among the better class of novel-readers in this country. The popularisation in England of the best Russian literature is an end greatly to be desired, and rapidly being carried out. The present volume, admirably translated, is taken as typical of this movement.

Whom God Hath Joined, by Arnold Bennett (Methuen), deals with the divorce problem in two marriages. In the one instance it is the wife who is unfaithful and in the other the husband. In this latter case the child intervenes and the case assumes another aspect. Most of the story is laid in the Five Towns and we get to the heart of things in the first few pages. Lawrence Ridware, an "admitted" clerk in a solicitor's office, has heard of his wife's misconduct with a man to whom she had formerly been engaged, Emery Greatbatch, through an anonymous letter and the story of a servant. He invites his brother Mark, an artist, from London to discuss the matter. They decide that Lawrence shall commence divorce proceedings at once, and Phyllis, the wife, who has overheard their conversation, decides to leave the house that night, and she takes steps to defend her case. The marriage to all outward appearance had been a happy one, but Lawrence tells Mark that

there never had been a real understanding between them. We hear that "he was incapable of initiation, a dreamer, a meditator, with a soul too fine for ambition. Whereas the key to Phyllis's character was ambition," and we quite well understand that they never would agree. Lawrence, who was temperamentally cold, never suspected that he was in any way to blame. Phyllis with Emery Greatbatch was a very different woman from the Phyllis with the rest of the world, she could be tender and loving and sacrificing; "she had an illusion that by gripping him tight with her frail and convulsive fingers she could keep him alive for ever, that he could not die while she cleaved to him." The story moves on and we get all the various steps in the divorce proceedings, and just before the case comes on Emery Greatbatch dies. The case is tried in London and the picture of the proceedings is so vivid that one almost hears the Judge's verdict, which we must leave to the reader to hear himself.

Interwoven with this story is the domestic upheaval of the Charles Fearn's household. It is in Charles Fearn's office that Lawrence Ridware is employed. We get a very clear picture of the Fearn's family in chapter iii. Mrs. Fearn "had a kind, melancholy, sensible maternal face, her personality seemed always to radiate kindness." The household is a very happy one, with the strong, healthy, bright children, and Charles Fearn is a kind father and a loving and devoted husband. It was during the absence of Mrs. Fearn on a visit that Charles Fearn's infidelity with his children's French governess was discovered by his daughter Annunciata. "A moment's indiscretion, a moment's folly at the top of a staircase, had nullified the amazing and elaborate ingenuity in deceit of a quarter of a century." Annunciata tells her mother the whole scene, and for the sake of her children Mrs. Fearn feels that this last indignity is too great, and so divorce proceedings are begun. Charles Fearn is a pathetic figure during this period, and when Annunciata stands in the witness-box against him and looks down on him, he "seemed to her strangely and surprisingly the most lovable man in the world." We felt with her that we could almost forget his misdeeds. The case ends very suddenly, and we feel perhaps that he has not been punished severely enough, but never to see again "the tender and delicate creature whom alone he purely loved" was a just and great punishment for him.

The story is wonderfully and powerfully told. Its men and women breathe in the ordinary atmosphere of every-day life. Life holds no illusions for Mr. Bennett. The tragedy in these two families is shown with such penetration, such truth and such inevitableness that we feel that there is not a single episode or character that could be different.

Delia Blanchflower, by Mrs. Humphrey Ward (Ward, Lock & Co.), deals with the Woman Suffrage question. Delia Blanchflower, a beautiful young girl, the daughter of a West India Governor, is left an orphan at twenty-one. Her father appoints as her guardian and trustee until she reaches the age of twenty-five an old friend of his—Mark Winnington—who has a property near his own. Two years before her father's death Delia came under the influence of Gertrude Marvell, a leading member of a militant suffrage society. This woman she chooses as her chaperon—in spite of her father's dying wishes—and they settle down in Delia's home in Maumsey, New Forest. From the first they decide not to hide their opinions or stop their

propaganda—to please anybody ; and when Mark Winnington comes on the scene he finds that his ward has fully made up her mind to thwart him in every conceivable way. Delia meets the society of Great Maumsey, but she cannot enter into its interests and activities, her mind and energies and money are entirely given up to the “cause,” and at any moment when she is inclined to waver she is brought up sharply by the iron will of Gertrude Marvell. They hold meetings in the place and find a few followers, one of whom—Marion Andrews—is singled out from the first by Gertrude for special work. A meeting held in a neighbouring town—Latchford—was broken up by a hostile crowd, and Winnington arrived just in time to save Delia from the menaces of an angry people. Sir Wilfred Lang—an arch-enemy of the cause, so Gertrude Marvell states—owns a most beautiful old mansion—Monk Lawrence—in the neighbourhood ; and the allusion to Sir Wilfred and his house had been the cause of the uproar at the meeting. Things move rapidly, and Delia gets more and more distressed and disturbed at Gertrude’s propaganda, and finds herself unwillingly influenced and drawn away by Mark. She had to confess to herself that the “Cause of Woman Suffrage had not advanced ; check by check had been inflicted upon it, and its numbers of supporters in the House of Commons had gone down and down.” Gertrude Marvell goes on her way undaunted and uses Delia’s money for the cause with a lavish hand. At last the great crisis came, and the disaster that many had been afraid to think might happen came to pass, and Monk Lawrence was destroyed by fire and with it Gertrude Marvell perished.

The story is a powerful indictment against militancy, and all the characters are vividly drawn. Gertrude Marvell is a woman with a strong personality, and we are sorry that such real talent should have been so wasted ; she is only able to arouse our sympathy quite at the end where she shows a real woman’s concern for the fate of a child. In Delia Mrs. Humphrey Ward has given us one of her most charming of female characters ; we cannot help loving her in spite of her waywardness, and we feel glad to leave her as the wife of her faithful and much-tried guardian.

There are many lovable characters in the story outside the militant element, but the sweetest and most generous of all, who did all her good deeds by stealth, is Miss Dempsey. “Men are what their mothers make them,” she says, and she knows that the vote is not going to redeem women’s souls.

The Research Magnificent, by H. G. Wells (Macmillan & Co.), is one of this author’s most striking stories. The book deals with the life of an idealist—William Porphyry Benham—and begins with a prelude in which the thoughts on his one great idea, to live life nobly and thoroughly, are set out in writing and discovered after his death by his friend White. Benham is described by his mother, at the age of seventeen, as “an excellent boy, a brilliant boy, but I begin to see just a little unbalanced.” The whole story bears out this estimate of his character ; Benham’s notes begin with “Fear—the First Limitation,” and he confesses that his fear of animals was ineradicable. Then follows a description of a walk in the jungle which Benham took alone one night, and this is certainly one of the finest pieces of descriptive writing that Mr. Wells has given us. One hears the crackling leaves ; sees the “round pupilled eyes of the tiger regarding him steadfastly,” and

is able to feel with Benham "what intruders men are, what foreigners in the life of this ancient system."

Benham is the son of a schoolmaster. His father divorced his mother; but she married later a distinguished London surgeon and the world received her on the whole fairly well. Benham lived with his father but saw his mother frequently. During his Cambridge days he talked and thought much of the Aristocratic life—the life which breaks away from the common life to something better. His mother had made great plans for a brilliant career for him in politics or diplomacy, but suddenly he made up his mind to leave London and make a journey round the world to work out for himself a theory of his work and duty in the world. Before he started he went into Surrey and there by accident he met Armanda. They fell in love, married, and the journey round the world was begun together. The honeymoon was spent in travels in the Balkans, and it was not the tremendous success they had expected it to be. After a few months Benham began to see that their divergence of mind was more remarkable than he could have imagined. The marriage did not prove a success and they separated. Benham then started again on his travels, was involved in many adventures; and through his mistaken notion that he could quell an angry mob by simply arguing with it he met his death.

In Other Days, by Mrs. Alfred Sidgwick (Methuen), is a story of a misunderstanding between two people. Mrs. Cloudesley is separated from her husband—an artist—and lives with her daughter in the house of her brother-in-law, Sir Lucius Tuft. After fifteen years, and when her daughter Rosalind is nineteen years old, they find the life unbearable at Icetown Park and decide to leave. They take a cottage at Menwinion, in Cornwall, and there they enjoy the Bohemian society of the artists who live there. After a while a very distinguished painter comes on a visit there, and he is no other than Rosalind's father, the celebrated Simon Cloudesley. The book ends very happily; Rosalind marries the rising young painter Dan Merivale, and her father and mother are once more united. The picture which Mrs. Sidgwick gives of the life of the artists in this small corner of Cornwall is very real, and one feels drawn towards their whole-hearted hospitality and absence of all formality.

Within the Tides, by Joseph Conrad (J. M. Dent & Sons), consists of four stories, of which the first is a wonderful, elusive, forceful tale of a remarkable personality—"The Planter of Malata." His name was Geoffrey Renouard. He lived for the most part alone with his servants on the Island of Malata, where he was experimenting with the silk plant. On one of his few visits to the city he met a beautiful woman, with whom he fell desperately in love. She was the daughter of Professor Moorsom and had come with her father and aunt to this colonial city in search of her *fiancé* who had been unjustly accused of dishonesty, and who had disappeared from London without leaving a trace of his whereabouts. Some time before this meeting Renouard had been urged to take an assistant with him back to his island, and this assistant turned out to be no other than the lost Arthur. When the Professor and his party hear of it they are invited by Renouard to accompany him back to his island. The result of that fateful visit must be left for the reader to hear in Mr. Conrad's own words. The tragedy is intense.

The second story, "The Partner," is a yarn told to the narrator by "the

most imposing old ruffian that ever followed the unromantic trade of master stevedore in the port of London"; he is moved to tell the tale in order to vindicate the memory of his old master—Captain Harry—from the charge of suicide. Cloete is the name of the partner in the firm of Captain Harry's brother—George Dunbar. The firm is in an embarrassed financial position and Cloete finally prevails on George to be a party in the scheme of wrecking the *Sagamore*, Captain Harry's ship, in order to use the insurance money for investment in a large patent medicine concern. How the scheme fails and why is told in a most forceful manner, and the reader is kept wondering and excited to the end.

The "Inn of the Two Witches" is a particularly gruesome and terrifying tale-told in the real romantic manner of an incident which occurred in 1813 during the Peninsula Campaign off the north coast of Spain. Tom Corbin, the best type of a genuine British tar of that time, is selected as a messenger for an important mission inland. He is accompanied on shore by Mr. Edgar Byrne—the narrator of the story—who starts him on his journey and returns to the boat. Just after Byrne had left Tom he is accosted by a man who warns him that travellers do not always return who pass by a certain portion of a road where there is an inn kept by the two aunts of a certain Bernadino. Byrne takes no notice, but the information worries him, and he tells the whole story to the captain on his return to the ship. They talk the matter over and finally decide to put the ship back and Byrne goes in search of Tom. He arrives at the Inn of the Two Witches and is invited to sleep in the Archbishop's bed. How he finds poor Tom and how he is himself rescued by Gonzales is the most thrilling part of an exciting story.

The last story, "Because of the Dollars," describes very vividly an adventure which a trading vessel encountered during one of its voyages in the East.

Brunel's Tower, by Eden Phillpotts (Heinemann), belongs to this author's series of tales of the industries of the West country. It describes all the different stages of work in a pottery with a minuteness which shows that Mr. Phillpotts understands every detail of the potter's art. The story opens with a description of an enterprise which George Easterbrook undertakes in the district of Tor Bay where he had discovered a deserted ruin, and which afterwards became known as Brunel's Tower, the well-equipped little pottery of four kilns. After the lapse of many years, a boy—Harvey Porter—was taken on at the works. He had run away from a reformatory and George Easterbrook took a great liking to the boy, who was most anxious to please. The boy adored the "master." After a time the boy committed an act which he thought would please the master, but which so enraged him that he sent the boy away from the works without a moment's delay. The boy's heart is broken, but he determines to redeem his character in his master's eyes; he succeeds and was to have returned to Brunel's Tower when the tragedy overtook him which ended his life. He died for his much-loved master. All the men and women employed at Brunel's Tower are described and studied with minute exactitude, and the atmosphere of that part of the country is depicted in a very real way.

A Lover's Tale, by Maurice Hewlett (Ward, Lock & Co.), is a story laid in Iceland, and gives a vivid picture of the manners and customs of the people, particularly of their love-making and marriage customs. The very forceful illustrations by Maurice Greiffenhagen give one an admirable idea

of the appearance of the people; and the landscapes in the background are very bold and fine. The story is told in a simple manner and is chiefly concerned with the love affair of Cormac, the son of Ogmund, a fighter and Viking, and the beautiful Stangerd, Thorkel's daughter of Tongue. Cormac was a wild young man, a great lover of nature and a poet. Their wooing was not very successful and the many incidents bearing on its various changes are graphically told, and in spite of Cormac's preposterous "love-making" he makes a most lovable if fiery hero. The heroine Stangerd, although so beautiful and so much sought after by the men, does not invite our sympathy as she should, because Cormac in such an attractive creature.

The wooing of Battle-Berse and Stanvor is in strong contrast to the other great events in the story, but we feel happy that Stanvor is at last repaid for her loving care and self-sacrifice.

In Mr. Knox's Country, by E. Æ. Somerville and Martin Ross (Longmans, Green & Co.), is another specimen of the keen Irish wit which these authors have led us to expect from them. The scene is laid in Ireland. The account of old Mrs. Knox's drive in a motor-car, which she undertook in order to settle the Casey Goggin affair, and how they came upon the meet, is perfectly delightful. So too the affair of getting Mr. Chichester on board the *Sheila*. The dinner-party at the McRory's with the motor-car incident is most amusingly told, and in fact the whole book is so sparkling with wit and so full of droll Irish stories that it is almost impossible to put it down until it is finished.

The Little Man and Other Satires, by John Galsworthy (Heinemann), consists of a collection of plays and stories, some of which have been published before. In the first play, "The Little Man," Mr. Galsworthy has accentuated the peculiarities of each nationality and he has been particularly hard on the English and American. The little man, who is the hero, owns to being of no nationality, his father being half-English and half-American and his mother half-German and half-Dutch; Mr. Galsworthy has given him all the fine qualities and feelings which the others lack, and the result is a very brilliant satire.

"Hall-Marked" is very fine and is a scathing indictment against the conventions.

More than half the book is given up to a series of short essays which Mr. Galsworthy calls "Studies of Extravagance." Of these "A Simple Tale" and "Ultima Thule" stand out for their pathos and charm; and "The Housewife," "The Writer," and "The Latest Thing" show in a very vivid way the egoist unadorned.

Guy and Pauline, by Compton Mackenzie (Martin Secker), is the love story of two young people. Guy Hazlewood, the hero, has appeared before in *Sinister Street*, and when this story opens we find him established in a house at Wychford, near Oxford, called Plashers Mead. He has retired to this lonely spot in order to devote himself to the writing of poetry, as a means of earning a living. Soon after he has settled at Plashers Mead, he accidentally meets the three daughters of the rector and promptly falls in love with the youngest—Pauline. He is afterwards introduced into the rector's family circle, and received there with great cordiality. The household is a very unusual one: the rector is a great botanist, and cares and thinks of nothing else; his wife is very charming, but very vague and unworldly;

while the three daughters have each a striking personality, but Pauline is the sweetest of them all. A few months pass and Guy declares his love for Pauline, and after a time they are allowed to become formally engaged. Questions of money then begin to disturb Guy; his writing has not been as successful as he had hoped; he produces a book of poems on which he centres all his hopes, but he cannot get a publisher to take the book, and the scheme utterly fails. Pauline loves him devotedly and sacrifices many childish fancies for his sake, but it gradually becomes clear that nothing is to be made out of poetry, and Guy is forced to accept a post in Macedonia. Before he goes Pauline writes a pathetic little letter in which she tells him her real feelings. Mr. Mackenzie gives us a beautiful picture of a gentle and gifted family, and of one of the sweetest and most gracious of heroines. The love of Guy and Pauline was very human and youthful and romantic, and we should have liked them to have been happier. Margaret the second daughter marries her Richard, and Monica goes into a convent.

Fifty-one Tales, by Lord Dunsany (Elkins, Matthews), is a collection of tales told in allegorical form, some of which are founded on old fables; some are satires of our own times and some are just beautiful nature fables. They are written with great charm and poetic feeling. It is difficult to select any for special mention, they are all told with such delicate satire, but the "True History of the Hare and the Tortoise," "Spring in Town," "The Workman," and "The Song of the Blackbird" are real gems.

Jaffery, by William J. Locke (John Lane), is a very delightful story told with great beauty of expression, lively wit and charm. Jaffery Chayne, "the fair-bearded, red-faced, blue-eyed, grinning giant," is a noble piece of character study, and Liosha, the "delectable savage," is unique. The story opens with the discovery by Hilary's wife Barbara that Adrian Boldero, their friend, had just published a novel called "The Diamond Gate," which was being discussed by every one and described as an "epoch-making" novel. Hilary, Adrian, Jaffery Chayne and Tom Castleton had been at Cambridge together and had formed a sort of brotherhood. Tom Castleton had died some time before, but the other two rejoiced at Adrian's success. Through this success Adrian is allowed to become engaged to Doria whom he loves. Jaffery Chayne had been travelling in the Balkans with a friend and returned just at the moment when Adrian is at the height of his fame. When Jaffery meets Doria he immediately becomes her willing slave. The friend with whom Jaffery had been travelling married an Albanian woman, and before he died he appointed Jaffery her guardian and trustee; Liosha is a very unusual, self-willed and unconventional woman, but she instantly endears herself to this circle of friends as soon as they begin to understand her. Adrian and Doria marry, and Doria worships her husband and thinks he is the greatest genius of the age. The project of another novel is started and the time draws near when it should be published. Adrian's whole character seems to change, he becomes morose and ill-tempered; and suddenly just when the book should have been in the publisher's hands he dies. The shock is so great to Doria that she nearly succumbs too. Jaffery and Hilary are appointed joint executors and trustees for Adrian's wife, and it is in going through his papers that they made their tragic discovery. Barbara alone is allowed to know the secret. Doria recovers and lives for Adrian's memory, and Jaffery, who would give the soul out of his body to save her, makes her

life as free from care as he can, and devotes all his energies to her service. Adrian's second book is published under the title of "The Greater Glory" and creates just as great a sensation as "The Diamond Gate." Jaffery later proposes to Doria but is repulsed. At this time Liosha disappears and Jaffery sets out to find her; he is successful and they set off together on a small steamship for a trip to Madagascar. There are several delightfully descriptive letters from Jaffery, and during this holiday Jaffery begins to see the many fine qualities of Liosha's character. Just before their homecoming Doria discovers what Jaffery and the others had been at such pains to hide from her; and the story ends in a remarkably fine chapter with Jaffery and Liosha as happy as they deserved to be.

The Little Iliad, by Maurice Hewlett (Heinemann), the latest of Mr. Hewlett's novels, is wonderfully conceived. The men are nearly all of the hero type, and the unfortunate Baron von Broderode makes a brave and dignified search for his Helen, in spite of Hector and all the other heroes by whom she is surrounded. Helena was certainly a very lovely woman, but until Hector came she was quite happy and contented with her Baron; her cold temperament helped her to find the line of least resistance and she did not complain. She was much more lovable and human when living at Iveroran with Sir Roderick and his sons; and it is very comforting to know that she returns. The choice of her second husband is as happy a one as she could have made.

Victory, by Joseph Conrad (Methuen), is a story of love and adventure and is laid chiefly in the tropical island of Samburin. The story is not the chief part of Mr. Conrad's book; it is the style and the quality of the writing and the atmosphere which keep us thrilled the whole time. The characters of Heyst and Lena are amongst the most human and beautiful that he has given us. "Mr. Jones," too, and Ricardo are wonderfully drawn, and one feels an unconquerable loathing for those lawless, card-sharping rascals. The picture of the two loving souls—Heyst and Lena—alone on their island is a pure idyll, and the hateful Schomberg gets his revenge when he sends those two lawless adventurers to disturb the tranquillity of the unsuspecting lovers. The last scene on the island described by the faithful Davidson is one of intense beauty. "Victory" is a great work.

SCIENCE OF THE YEAR.

THE year 1915 was a sad one for Science. If Art, Music, Literature, etc., are to a great extent cosmopolitan, Science by its very nature is still more so. The investigation of natural phenomena has little reference to political boundaries. Observation, experiment, and deduction are largely independent of language. They need, it is true, a highly developed language as a vehicle of thought and expression ; but for these purposes most of the modern civilised languages are equally useful, and in most sciences a student has hitherto only been able to keep abreast of his subject by reading the work of other students in French and German as well as English. The co-operation of men of science in Europe has been largely broken up by the war ; and in so far obstacles have been placed in the way of further progress.

Yet these obstacles are of minor importance as compared with the obstacles established by the general shifting of interest away from scientific matters. It is not only that the universities have been impoverished and depleted ; it is not only that nearly all workers up to the age of forty have been drawn into the vortex of war,—it is still more that the concentrated interest of those who remained at work has been sapped by the overwhelming excitement of political events. Pure science has fallen in *status* : the only science that retains high public respect is that which ministers to the more urgent needs of the nation : the manufacture of bombs and deadly gases, the appliances of destruction, and it is true the medical sciences of healing and prevention of epidemic disease.

Yet although the war has brought much sorrow to those who work for the advancement of science, it is doubtful whether the temporary check may not in the end turn out to be an advantage. In the first place, science has nowhere come to a standstill. In England, in France (especially at the Pasteur Institute), and in Germany, scientific investigation has proceeded on the lines followed before the war. The stream of observation and thought has been reduced in volume, but it has not died out. The same scientific journals in all three countries have generally continued to be published, and to deal with the same subjects as heretofore. Doubtless it is true that the training of young men of science has been in abeyance ; and there are many who believe that the coming generation of men of science will be totally extinguished or gravely enfeebled by the lack of the close discipline and intensive study which should be applied to students at their most receptive age. But even this may have its compensations. Those who are less well versed in the old problems will turn with greater readiness to new ones. If the benefits of University education are lost, the shackles also will be broken. A wider and freer scientific imagination may result from a diminished application to the methods and problems of

the past. The effect upon character of facing realities is an increased seriousness of disposition ; and it may be anticipated that those of the younger generation who subsequently devote themselves to science will bring to it fresh minds which may well prove a wholesome tonic. It may be hoped further that the large number of those who have looked to science as a means of personal advancement will be diminished. Only those are likely to overcome the initial prohibitiveness of the study, who have a natural bent and predilection for it, and who therefore are best fitted for the creation of new knowledge. A sudden rupture of the ordinary course of affairs is disagreeable at the moment, but may well be the starting-point of newer and bolder lines of thought and discovery. These observations of course apply only to pure science, and not to medicine, which has already derived an immense stimulus from the requirements of the war.

The cosmopolitan nature of science was well illustrated by the allocation of the Nobel Prizes on November 11 and 12 at Stockholm by the Royal Academy of Science. The Nobel Prize for Physics for 1914 was awarded to Professor M. von Laue, of Frankfurt-on-Main, for his discovery of the diffraction of X-rays in crystals ; and for 1915 it was divided between Professor W. H. Bragg, of Leeds, and his son, Mr. W. L. Bragg, of Cambridge, for their researches on a similar subject. The Nobel Prize for Chemistry for 1914 was awarded to Professor Theodore William Richards, of Harvard University, for fixing the atomic weights of chemical elements ; and for 1915 to Professor R. Willstätter of Berlin.

In England, Sir William Crookes resigned his position of President of the Royal Society. In the ordinary course, he would have been succeeded by a biologist ; but, on account of the war, and of the pressing need of the Government for scientific assistance on questions of physics and chemistry, the Council decided to appoint another physicist, and the honour fell to Sir Joseph Thomson.

The British Association met at Manchester on September 8, under the presidency of Professor Arthur Schuster. The usual excursions were dispensed with, and the meeting of the Association was limited to three days.

THE PHYSICAL SCIENCES.

Much of the important work done on this side of science was subsidiary to the operations of war, and cannot therefore yet be discussed in public. The original use of chlorine gas by the Germans for asphyxiating the British and French troops forcibly directed public attention to the necessity of utilising the knowledge of men of science. Nevertheless there continued to exist a widespread feeling among men of science that inadequate use was made of the assistance which they were in a position to offer. The public neglect of science during the war caused many heartburnings, and much diffidence as to the future of a nation which exhibited so much indifference, when confronted by one of the most powerful scientific, as well as military, nations of the world.

In view of the secrecy necessary in the discussion of military applications of physics and chemistry, many of the public discourses at the meeting of the British Association were concerned only indirectly with

the war. Professor Schuster, in his opening address, attacked the tendency to overdo the utilitarian aspect of science. He pointed out that many of the great scientific advances had originated from purely abstract motives, without any direct thought of the improvement of humanity. He reviewed the qualities which go to compose the scientific mind; and reached the conclusion that there were no inherent peculiarities, apart from certain general characteristics of memory, alertness and moral courage. He disputed Huxley's dictum that science was organised common sense: and further condemned the self-depreciation which led the country to believe itself deficient in powers of organisation.

The detachment of science, on which Professor Schuster laid stress, was well exemplified by the Presidential address of Sir F. W. Dyson to Section A on Mathematics and Physics. The Astronomer-Royal selected for his subject an account of the newer theories of the origin and construction of the Universe. Indeed it may be said that, during the year under review, so far as there was any public interest in science at all for its own sake, that interest was mildly directed towards the problems of the arrangement of the stars and the constitution of the heavens. After a long period during which Astronomy gave issue to no very striking novelties, a time has at length come when much laborious research has resulted in new doctrines and principles capable of drawing the attention of the public. The subject is one on which we may write without fear of disclosing any scientific secrets to the Germans.

From early times, it has been an insoluble problem as to whether there was any connexion between the stars; whether they were really grouped into systems, as the names of constellations suggest; or whether they are altogether discrete and scattered at hazard throughout space. The researches of Professor Eddington and others in this sphere have gone far towards suggesting a solution of the problem. According to the latest theories, the stellar universe is a distinct and separate entity, isolated in the midst of infinite space. The universe of stars is disposed as an oblate spheroid; that is to say, it is shaped like a bun. The stars tend to be concentrated in one plane, and as we pass farther from this plane, they become always more thinly scattered. The plane of the stellar universe is that of the Milky Way, which appears to constitute a complete band of luminous material surrounding the stellar universe, and loosely connected with it. Finally the theory has been proposed that the entire stellar universe is in reality a "spiral nebula" similar to other bodies of that nature which may be seen, through telescopes, plunged in the most remote depths of space. All such spiral nebulae have two arms wound about the central mass; and it is suggested that the Milky Way represents the two spiral arms of the stellar universe. Our universe then is an island in the midst of infinite space. Other islands of a similar character are visible at incredible distances; their light taking many thousand years to traverse the intervening void and arrive at the Earth. Interesting as these speculations are, they bring us no nearer a solution to the great metaphysical problems of space. They do not tell us whether matter continues to be distributed at intervals *ad infinitum*, or whether there is a boundary, beyond which no matter exists, so that space stretches away for ever in endless vacancy. We do not even approach a solution to this problem. Like many of the

puzzles of metaphysics, we either have to call it insoluble, or we have to affirm that the problem itself arises only out of the imperfect development of our intellectual methods.

THE BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES.

Both in England and Germany, research has continued to be carried on with reference to breeding and Mendelian genetics. Experiments have been greatly hampered by the dearth of men; but in many cases women have acted very successfully as assistants. In Mendelian research, the investigations of Mr. Bateson promise even greater and more remarkable results than any that have yet been obtained. It cannot be said, however, that any light has been thrown hitherto on the problem of the causes of variation. But it is not too much to hope that the problem will in time be solved; and with it one of the biggest gaps be removed, that now stand in the way of the furtherance of human welfare.

Zoology suffered a real loss in the death of Professor Minchin, who was President of the Zoological section of the British Association. He was prevented by illness from reading his paper in person; but that paper, dealing with the evolution of the cell, was an important contribution to the modern philosophy of cytology. Professor Minchin dealt with the relation of the nucleus to the cytoplasm of the cell. He expressed his conviction that the truly fundamental part of the cell was the *chromatin* in the nucleus, and the *chromidia* scattered throughout the cytoplasm. He held therefore that the origin of life must have been in the form of organisms, of homogeneous consistency and of a material similar to chromatin. The nearest approach to such organisms is in the group tentatively known as Chlamydozoa, whose minuteness and invisibility makes direct observation difficult; so that their existence is mainly inferred from pathological alterations in the Metazoa. Research has not yet succeeded in recognising any free-living *biococci*, similar to the parasitic Chlamydozoa; but if there are any such organisms, they probably consist of a substance similar in its reactions to chromatin, comparatively homogeneous, not limited by a rigid envelope, and reproducing by binary fission. If biococci of this kind were the first definite form of life, then they must have had the property also of building up their protein-molecules from the simplest inorganic substances. From organisms such as this evolution must have proceeded along the two main lines of the plant and animal kingdoms. The most primitive animal was formed by the secretion of a "periplasm" by the biococcus. The streaming of this substance endowed the organism with the power of locomotion, and of engulfing suitable particles of food-material: thus the predatory character of the animal kingdom was one of the earliest features of differentiation from plant-life.

Professor Minchin put forward this doctrine admittedly as a speculation. Yet there were many who held that there was no sufficient proof of the priority of the nucleus to the cytoplasm in order of evolution. That priority was urged mainly on the ground that the functions of the nucleus have now a far greater vital significance than the functions of the cytoplasm. But many adhered to the opinion that this fact constituted no evidence of the priority of the nucleus in order of time. These critics preferred to believe that the nucleus and cytoplasm had evolved simul-

taneously by differentiation from a primitive substance which combined the attributes of both in a rudimentary form. They considered that this joint and simultaneous evolution represented a closer analogy to the development of organs in more advanced animals and plants.

Professor Minchin pointed out in opposition to this view that the alimentary tract which arises earlier in evolution than other animal organs, is likewise the more important. But the analogy was regarded as scarcely justified. For although the alimentary tract may appear as a separate region prior to the nervous or muscular systems, yet the entire protoplasm of primitive animals has nervous and muscular properties (yet undifferentiated) before there is any sign of a specialised alimentary tract. Very many therefore still adhere to the view that it is more probable that nucleus and cytoplasm arose by differentiation from a homogeneous substance combining the rudimentary functions of both, than that the nucleus arose first and then secreted the cytoplasm. The whole subject is necessarily one of pure speculation. The only logical weapon with which it can be touched is that of analogy: and not very close analogy either. Any conclusions or opinions arrived at must therefore be of purely tentative character.

On philosophic biology there has been scarcely any discussion in the course of the year. It seems likely that when the larger philosophic issues of science are re-opened after the war, controversy will be directed more on physiological than on purely zoological lines. The fundamental problem around which philosophical dispute was concentrated before the war was the ultimate mode of action of vital phenomena,—the question as to whether all vital manifestations were ultimately to be resolved into chemical and physical reactions. For a man of science, the main significance and the only significance of M. Bergson's philosophy was in its denial that the manifestations of life were finally physico-chemical in character. It is quite clear that this very ancient problem is of all philosophical problems the most important for the general progress of humanity and for the deeper understanding of science and of practical life. In almost every age, philosophers have questioned the universal popular belief in a special and autonomous *vital principle*, which knows no law and is not amenable to scientific investigation. Towards the middle of last century, the doctrine of vitalism seemed to be discredited in the eyes of the most influential men of science. Towards the end of the century, however, vitalism had begun once more to grow in popularity; and M. Bergson's philosophy was introduced into England on the crest of the wave of reaction. That philosophy once again stimulated interest and discussion of the subject; and so soon as scientific interest was aroused, the belief in mechanism as against vitalism again began to gain ground. It was found that nearly all physiologists disbelieved in vitalism, and that in general the only adherents of this doctrine were those who had imperfect acquaintance, or far more commonly no acquaintance at all, with physiological phenomena. Jacques Loeb in America, and Georges Bohn in France, powerfully defended the mechanistic view. In England it was publicly emphasised by Professor Schäfer. A long and detailed controversy was carried on in the quarterly *Bedrock*; and after the unfortunate demise of that periodical, was continued in a more desultory fashion in the pages

of *Science Progress*. During 1915, interest was largely diverted from this subject in common with all other abstract discussions; but the controversy remains alive, though in a state of comparatively suspended animation. It will assuredly break out afresh with renewed intensity as soon as social affairs become more settled. Meanwhile physiological research proceeds so rapidly, that there is a great hope that the entire subject may before long be removed from the sphere of logic and inference; and solved beyond any further question by the methods of observations and experiment. It can scarcely be doubted that the vitalistic theory will be finally condemned: nor can it be doubted that a general recognition of the mechanistic doctrine would lead to revolutionary changes, not only in philosophy but in psychology,—and through a more potent psychology, in human thought and affairs at large. We shall continue to refer to the progress of this controversy in future numbers of the *ANNUAL REGISTER*.

Another biological problem—and one which is likely to attain special prominence on account of the war—is that of population. The retardation of the birth-rate was already becoming a matter of concern before the war. To those who have had inclination to think about it, the concern has been considerably increased. There occurred during the year a far larger fall than usual in the birth-rate, though there was an equally large increase in the marriage-rate. This was no doubt to be accounted for by the removal of so large a proportion of young men from civil life, and has no special significance. But the view has been widely expressed that the heavy mortality entailed by the war will lead to a permanent decline of population. This opinion has been expressed in conjunction with Eugenic doctrines. It has been pointed out that soldiers are a selected group who rise above a certain standard of physical efficiency; the feeble and the weak are excluded from their ranks. Hence, it has been argued, the destruction of life in war is a destruction of the fittest. There is no corresponding destruction of the unfit; and in consequence the average physical fitness of a nation at the end of a war will be less than their average physical fitness at the beginning; and this reduced standard of efficiency will be perpetuated by heredity.

It is, to say the least, extremely questionable whether this gloomy foreboding is justified by the facts. The doctrines of Eugenics have generally appealed with greater force to the sciolist than to the highly trained man of science. The conclusions of Eugenics are reached by the deductive method; and every experienced biologist has learned to distrust that method profoundly, and not least when its deliverances are the most smooth and plausible. It sounds obvious, of course, that war must have a “dysgenic” effect; but there is reason to believe that the factors in operation are far more complicated and numerous than have ever been envisaged by the most discerning eugenicist. It is assumed that those passed for military service are the bearers of a better heredity than those rejected. But on what ground is this assumption made? The great majority of rejections are on account of rupture, heart-complaints and the results of accidents, which have arisen through the mischances of ordinary life, and have no conceivable connexion with heredity. Those who suffer from these acquired disabilities are every bit as fit for the propagation of healthy children as though they were up to the Army standard. On the

other hand, many of the stigmata of degeneration give no objective signs which cause rejection by the army doctors. This is especially true of evil nervous heredity. Latent epilepsy, or constitutional syphilis, would probably not stand in the way of any recruit who wished to join the Army; and we are informed by one of the most distinguished living authorities on mental diseases, that the feeble-minded have been found during the present war to make capital soldiers. In short, the army medical examinations let through very large numbers of men of the most villainous heredity; while their rejections are for the most part wholly unconcerned with any heredity qualities whatever. The attempt to bring war within the pale of eugenic crimes must therefore fail until a far deeper investigation has been undertaken. The argument at present is urged only on the shallowest grounds; and even partakes of the charlatanry which hangs around the whole subject of Eugenics.

Many more exclusively medical problems have arisen out of the present war. Tetanus, which was so common at the opening of the campaign, was almost completely controlled by routine prophylactic injections of anti-serum, in all cases where a wound appeared to have been exposed to the danger of infection; thereafter little more was seen of this terrible disease. Much study during the year was devoted to a novel complaint produced by the war—a form of nervous shock, which shattered the tone of the nervous system and frequently led to forms of insanity. Little, however, has been published on the subject; the army medical authorities preferring to wait until their observations are more complete. Treatment by psycho-analysis did not appear altogether successful; and the psychological theories of Freud continued that decline in scientific favour, which had already been obvious the preceding year. The unhappy events in Belgium again brought forward the question as to whether a rape is ever followed by conception; but difficulty of precise *data* has prevented any satisfactory answer being attained. The general public however exhibited no doubts whatever on the subject. A bill was introduced into the French chamber for the legalisation of abortion in certain areas overrun by the German armies; but the bill was eventually dropped, more on moral than on scientific grounds.

Surgery likewise acquired much fresh interest from the war. In one case, reported by the *British Medical Journal*, a bullet was removed from the interior of a soldier's heart, which was then stitched up again and continued to beat strongly. No general anæsthetic was employed, and it was noted that the heart could be manipulated without causing any pain or discomfort to the patient.

Turning to the distribution of ordinary diseases in England, the Registrar-General issued his report [Cd. 7780] dealing with the year 1913. The death-rate was 13·7 per 1000; the rate for tuberculosis and phthisis being the lowest on record. The rapid decline of these diseases, affording hope of their ultimate extinction (like leprosy) from England, was unfortunately balanced by the continued rise in the death-rate from cancer; which, in the year under review, was the highest on record both for males and females. Uterine cancer, to which married women were more liable than unmarried by 73 per cent., did not show any increase, but some diminution. Ovarian cancer claimed twice as many victims among the unmarried as

among the married ; while cancer of the breast, to which unmarried women were 45 per cent. more liable than married, showed a very rapid increase. The marriage-rate showed a slight rise, and the birth-rate as usual continued to fall. The population of England and Wales was estimated at 36,919,339, consisting of 17,857,014 males and 19,062,325 females.

As regards Geography, Sir Rupert Clarke returned to England early in the year from his exploring expedition up the Fly River in British New Guinea. Sir Rupert succeeded in reaching a point twenty miles further than the previous limit of Sir William Macgregor's explorations ; and made the first ascent of Mount Donaldson, close to what was then the German boundary. Many interesting observations were collected on the customs of the people. Sir Rupert Clarke travelled 630 miles up the Fly River, but failed to reach its source.

Communications were received by the Royal Geographical Society from Sir Aurel Stein, recounting the progress of his explorations in Central Asia. Sir Aurel's main object had been the tracing of the old Chinese Wall in Southern Mongolia. He found many remains of the greatest interest and discovered Marco Polo's "City of Etzina." During the winter 1914-1915, Sir Aurel Stein remained in the neighbourhood of Turfan, where he collected important manuscript remains. During the summer of 1915, he travelled through the Alai region, across the Russian Pamirs, and then down the whole length of the Oxus through Wakhan, Shughnan, Roshan, and the other Alpine tracts along its right bank. Many interesting geographical and ethnographical observations were made, details of which have not yet reached England. In the middle of October, Sir Aurel reached the railway at Samarkand, and subsequently made his way to Meshed, to pass the winter in exploration about Seistan.

These are the only scientific subjects which in the least degree affected public attention during this strenuous year of war.

ART, DRAMA, AND MUSIC.

I. ART.

THE chief incident of importance connected with the graphic or plastic arts was of a negative kind. On April 1 (the beginning of the financial year) the Treasury suspended *sine die* the usual annual grants to all public museums and galleries. Among acquisitions to the National Gallery were two Hoppner portraits (bequeathed by Miss Julia Crockat), and a "View of Dordrecht" (purchased), by Aelbert Cuyp, who is already over-represented in the collection. The Tate Gallery received among other bequests the magnificent "Portrait of Professor Ingram Bywater," by J. S. Sargent, R.A.; a drawing by Richard Dadd, a rare artist hitherto unrepresented; "Premier Matin" (marble), by Egide Rombaux (presented by artists and other subscribers as a tribute to Belgian art). The Chantrey purchases (loaned) were "A Vision of the Sea," by Mark Fisher, A.R.A.; "A Secret," by Fred Appleyard, and "The Bather" (marble), by Albert Toft. Other gifts were made by Lord d'Abernon and Professor Sadler through the National Art-Collections Fund and Contemporary Art Society respectively. The rejection of other proffered gifts created some ill-feeling. The National Portrait Gallery received by gift or bequest several interesting items, among others "Swinburne and His Sisters," by George Richmond, R.A.; "Mary Ann Cross," by Lady Alma-Tadema; "Walter Crane," by Watts,—one of the painter's finer works. The gallery being requisitioned for Government offices was temporarily closed and dismantled in November.

Acquisitions to the Print Room of the British Museum included a drawing by Dürer, signed and dated 1489 (presented by the Dürer Society); a collection of English water-colours (bequeathed by the Rev. C. J. Sale and his wife); a drawing by Gaspar van Witel (presented by the Keeper, Campbell Dodgson, Esq.); various engravings and etchings and lithographs of the French and English schools; and a unique German coloured wood-cut, representing St. Nicholas, fifteenth century (presented by the National Art-Collections Fund), a work of singular beauty.

A list of the acquisitions at the Victoria and Albert Museum is not available; but here, appropriately enough in a building founded for State-aided information, was held an exhibition during the summer of works by the remarkable Serbian sculptor Ivan Meštrović, whose archaistic and original gifts met with generous and deserved recognition. Some exception was taken to the freedom, unusual in this country, with which certain symbolic motives were treated. The Committee and Board of Education, however, being fortified with the names of Cardinal Bourne and other eminent ecclesiastics, were able to ignore the forcibly expressed criticism of Professor Selwyn Image. An admirable example of the sculptor's

genius, "Milos Obilic," was presented to the museum by the Serbian Government when the exhibition closed.

Additions to provincial and Scotch galleries during 1915 demand no special mention. William Bell Scott's early portrait of Swinburne, Oxford, was given to Balliol College.

The National Art-Collections Fund, though inadequately supported at all times, managed to contribute 400*l.* towards the purchase by the British Museum of an eleventh-century Chinese painting, and made other valuable gifts in kind to various museums, some of which are mentioned above.

The Royal Academy, in lieu of the usual exhibition of old masters, devoted its galleries to a general exhibition of modern work, three rooms being devoted to Belgian art. On February 12 John Alfred Arnesby Brown and Joseph Farquharson, and on December 6 Charles Sims were elected Academicians; on April 23 Edgar Bundy, Charles Leonard Hartwell (sculptor), and Glyn Philpot were elected Associates. Frank Bramley, R.A., died on August 10. The summer exhibition was opened as usual on May 3, but there was no annual dinner and no soirée. From October 14 the galleries on the east side were lent to the British Red Cross Society till February, 1916.

The New English Art Club maintained its usual high standard at its spring and autumn exhibitions in Suffolk Street, though several prominent members had volunteered for Army or war work. Other societies scarcely reached their average standard.

By the generosity of Mr. Edmund Davis, a well-known collector in London, thirty-eight modern English paintings and drawings were presented to the Luxembourg Gallery in Paris. Apart from the superb Pre-Raphaelite works at Birmingham and the Tate, the French capital may now boast of the choicest and most representative collection of modern English pictures in any public European museum, with the possible exception of Dublin.

An irreparable loss to painters, painting and connoisseurship occurred on May 7 by the death, in the sinking of the *Lusitania*, of Sir Hugh Lane, Director of the Dublin National Gallery. By the terms of his will both the English and Irish National Galleries are to benefit conditionally; but the interpretation by the courts of his testamentary dispositions had not been determined by the close of the year. A few weeks before his death two of Sir Hugh Lane's most valuable pictures, Titian's "Man in the Red Cap," and the Caledon Holbein "Portrait of Thomas Cromwell" were sold to American collectors. To balance these losses of national heirlooms it is pleasing to record the purchase, on October 8, of Rembrandt's "Titus" (c. 1650) from Lord Spencer by Mr. Herbert Cook, for the famous gallery of his family at Richmond.

Red Cross sales were held at Christie's on February 5 *et seq.* and on April 12 *et seq.* The quality of the pictures offered was not high; the most interesting feature at the latter sale being some blank canvases to be painted by eminent artists on instructions from the purchasers. One contributed by Mr. Sargent reached 10,000*l.*, the bid coming by telegram from Sir Hugh Lane in America, this being his last and characteristic purchase. The famous auction rooms were not, however, opened for commercial purposes until April 30 (in normal times the auctions would

have been continuous from the previous November until the summer vacation). The prices realised throughout the short season were wonderfully steady, though no very striking works were put under the hammer. At a smaller auction room two masterpieces by Massaccio and one by Pesellino fell to a dealer for trifling sums, undetected by any but a few experts too poor to bid for them.

Picture dealers generally, though dolorous about the state of the market, did not abate their prices ostensibly. In some cases valuable stock was sent to America, heavily insured against submarines.

Though attracting relatively little attention in the Press, what may prove in the future the most significant event in the year in connexion with art was the publication in May of a "National Gallery Committee" report, issued as a Government blue-book. This represented the findings of an influential committee (Earl Curzon of Kedleston, chairman, Mr. Robert Witt, secretary) which on the instructions of the Trustees investigated, by hearing various expert evidence, the question of the retention of important pictures in this country, the administration of museums and galleries, and the amenities available for their maintenance and development. The report recommended drastic reforms in the distribution of the national treasures, in the powers accorded to different directors, and in the present system by which the National and the Tate Galleries are supervised by the same board of trustees. Valuable suggestions were offered for securing old masters and historic heirlooms from export to America or the Continent; while a tax on auctions was advised for raising funds for their purchase.

In English sculpture Mr. Eric Gill's progress with the "Stations of the Cross" at Westminster Roman Catholic Cathedral must not be omitted, further panels having been erected. Mr. Gill's work was severely criticised in a Sunday paper; a long and not very illuminating correspondence followed. Without exaggeration these panels may come to be regarded as the first serious schematic works of sculpture erected in any public church since the Reformation, so far as England is concerned, whatever may be the opinion in regard to their harmony with Bentley's architecture. Eloquent animadversions of a valuable kind appeared in the *Daily Telegraph* from the pen of Sir Claude Phillips with reference to the inadequate protection from Zeppelin raids afforded to the different museums and their contents. He was ably supported in *The Times* and elsewhere by Mr. Charles Ricketts who made a special plea for the Plantagenet tombs in the Abbey. The raids of September and October came near to emphasising the danger anticipated. The Elgin marbles, it should be added, were at an early stage ingeniously rendered bombproof; and, gradually during the course of the year, owing to the agitation, the more valuable foreign pictures, at least in the National Gallery and the Wallace Collection, were removed from their places. Sir Claude Phillips still, however, expressed himself as dissatisfied with the scope of the precautions.

A state of war rendered difficult the opportunity for accurately observing changes in fashion and trends of taste, if any such existed during 1915. Mr. Roger Fry, the leader of extreme methods in painting and advocate of extreme habits in design, held a successful exhibition at the Alpine Club in November. This was discussed widely if not always favourably. The

movement which, having endowed with the convenient and comprehensive soubriquet of Post-Impressionism, he introduced to this country, has made considerable headway. The theory or principle (a revolt against representative art) is often accepted by many connoisseurs and experts who occupy official positions. The effect on younger painters of considerable vitality has been clearly marked, with very unequal results. Critics have followed with ovine enthusiasm and little discrimination. Those who only a few years since were regarded as advanced in technique, and now resist the prevalent influence, find themselves classics and, with more reluctance, *ACADEMICS*. Prophecies that the war would sweep away such innovations have not yet been fulfilled; still it must be acknowledged that the newer school, while reacting on artists of previous accredited achievement, has produced no painter even of the second rank comparable to the contemporary French innovators who derive from Cezanne.

The continued dearth of political caricaturists among the compatriots of Rowlandson during a European war in which we are engaged provokes comment. Some of the latent talent is no doubt absorbed by Futurists and Cubists. The so-called caricatures in the daily Press and elsewhere possess no artistic significance whatever, Mr. Beerbohm having ceased to exhibit or to publish his drawings. Blameless, if patriotic, cartoons have been the substitute. But even in this line Mr. Louis Raemaekers, the Dutch draughtsman, eclipsed all autochthonous effort in his exhibition at the Fine Art Society.

On March 14 the accomplished illustrator and decorative painter, Walter Crane, died. He had initiated a new era in the embellishment of children's books. In promoting, with William Morris, the Arts and Crafts movement his influence was European. At the time of his death this was more obvious on the Continent than in England. Arthur Hughes, the venerable associate of the Pre-Raphaelites, died on December 22. He was by no means the last of his group, as wrongly stated in the Press. After years of neglect, a younger generation had come to appreciate his fine colour sense. His pictures were sought after. He was the recipient of a Civil List pension.

II. DRAMA.

The first dramatic event of 1915 of any importance was, appropriately enough, the production in the early days of January, at the Kingsway Theatre, of Emile Verhaeren's poetical drama "*Le Cloître*." The well-known Belgian tragedian, M. Carlo Liten, supported by a Belgian company, gave for the first time to a London audience his interpretation, already popular on the Continent, of the character of Balthasar, the fanatical monk driven mad by remorse. It would be too much to say that the production was a popular success, but judicious lovers of the intellectual drama enjoyed both the splendid poem of Verhaeren and M. Liten's remarkable rendering of "*Balthasar*." During the same month another company of Belgian actors presented (in French) at the Criterion M. Jean François Fonson's "*La Kommandatur*," a play dealing with the facts of the German occupation of Brussels, connected by the thread of a simple domestic drama. **MM.** Duquesne and Libeau represented the outstanding talent of the company. "*La Kommandatur*" was certainly the best war-play that had

yet been produced. The month of February saw yet another Belgian play (also at the Criterion), "*La Flambée*," by M. Kistemaekers, a thoroughly well-written piece of the familiar school of Bernstein, and admirably acted by M. Duquesne's clever company. The same week Madame Réjane gave at the Coliseum a short one-act play. Réjane was of course Réjane—literally, since she played the part of herself visiting some English officers at the front—but her support was so weak and the "situation" of the piece so ineffective that it was taken off after a few days. It was also during February that Mr. Vachell's "*The Searchlights of War*," the first new English play of the year, was produced at the Savoy. Mr. Vachell's play was a war-play, original in the fact that his subject was the effect of the war on an old situation of long standing, rather than the new situation created by the war. Although it enjoyed a considerable run, due no doubt to the clever impersonation by Mr. H. B. Irving of the principal character, it was not a good play, being distinctly the production of a novelist rather than of a dramatist.

During March two interesting short pieces were produced, Sir James Barrie's "*The New Word*" at the Duke of York's, and Mr. E. F. Benson's "*Dinner for Eight*" at the Ambassadors. "*The New Word*" (which is Second-Lieutenant) was a delicate piece of work, illustrating the almost disastrous reserve of the British temperament at emotional crises. It was beautifully given, Mr. O. B. Clarence scoring a great success as the affectionate father, clogged almost to dumbness with emotion at the departure for the front of his only son. Mr. Benson's little piece, the lead of which was played by Miss Viola Tree, though written at the moment, was a dramatic counterpart of his early novels. Miss Tree might in fact have been impersonating "*Dodo*." Four interesting new plays were produced during April, Mr. Sutton-Vane's "*The Blow*," at the New, a remarkably well-composed study in the social aspect of murder; Mr. Hartley Manners' "*Panorama of Youth*," at the St. James's, a little confused and rather deliberately belonging to the School of Pinero; Mr. Macdonald Hastings's "*Advertisement*," at the Kingsway, full of clever things but insufficiently "composed"; and Mr. Vachell's "*Quinneys*," at the Haymarket. Mr. Vachell's play was the first great success of the year. It was a capital play, free from the "novelist's" faults of the "*Searchlights of War*," and it afforded Mr. Henry Ainley an opportunity for a splendid character part, that of Quinney, the middle-aged art dealer. Mr. Ainley rose to the fullest demands of the part of which he gave a very fine interpretation. Early in May came Sir Herbert Tree's first new play of the year at His Majesty's. He selected a translation by Mr. Gilbert Cannan of M. Frondaie's dramatic version of "*L'Homme qui Assassina*," the well-known novel by Claude Farrère. As a play the production was a failure, and did not as a matter of fact run for very long. There were two interesting points about it. The very beautiful scenery designed by Mr. Hugo Rumbold, and the fact that Mr. Bouchier and Miss Irene Vanbrugh were welcomed into the cast by Sir Herbert. The same week Mr. Charles Hawtrey produced a new farce, "*Striking*," at the Apollo in which he was as amusing as ever, and Madame Réjane took "*Alsace*," a patriotic war-play of no artistic value, off the stage of the Court and produced "*Madame Sans Gêne*," the title-*rôle* of which is her greatest part. In this month two interesting repertory companies visited London,

"The Irish Players" from the Abbey Theatre, Dublin, and the Liverpool Repertory Company. An American murder play, "On Trial," by Mr. Elmer Reizenstein was also produced at the Lyric, which was a new experiment for Londoners in stagecraft. The scene was laid in a New York Criminal Court, and at certain points in the depositions of the witnesses the stage suddenly darkened and apparently revolved, disclosing to the audience the scene described by the witness. Miss Edyth Goodall distinguished herself very much in the exacting dual rôle of an innocent victim of a scoundrel and the wife of the man accused of his murder.

June saw a new play at the Savoy, Messrs. Eden Philpotts and Macdonald Hastings's "The Angel in the House." It was a capital comedy of love and futurism. The title-rôle was inimitably performed by Mr. H. B. Irving, well supported by Mr. Holman Clark and Lady Tree. The "Angel" was the second of Mr. Irving's successes at the Savoy. The late Mr. Stephen Phillips's "Armageddon," an epic drama mostly in blank verse dealing with the war, was produced this month by Mr. Martin Harvey (who took the part of Satan), but proved a complete failure, only running for a few nights. Perhaps the most remarkable feature of this month's drama was Miss Marie Löhr's performance at His Majesty's of the title-rôle in "Marie-Odile," a play dealing with the vicissitudes of a convent in war-time by Mr. Edward Knoblanck. The play was hopelessly weak and improbable, but Miss Löhr's impersonation of the almost idiotically innocent novice was very striking. At the Vaudeville "The Green Flag," a well-constructed comedy by Mr. Keble Howard, was presented by Mr. Bouchier and a strong company. Mesdames Constance Collier and Lilian Braithwaite divided the honours with him. At Wyndham's Mr. Du Maurier presented a new play by Mr. Martindale, "Gamblers All," in which Mr. Lewis Waller played with great success the part of a high-minded money-lender. The play had no intrinsic interest. The month of July saw a general slackening of theatrical enterprise, which was confined to revivals, but in August "Kick In," an American "crook" play, dealing with the criminal life of New York, scored a great success at the Vaudeville. The American company acted splendidly together.

Early in September Mr. Du Maurier produced a new play at Wyndham's (the first of the autumn season), which proved an enormous success and is, indeed (at the time of writing, Jan. 1916), still running. "The Ware Case" was a capital detective story effectively dramatised, and Mr. Du Maurier made a splendid part out of Sir Hubert Ware, the murderer. Miss Marie Löhr as the murderer's wife if possible added to her great reputation. The principal event of the season was, however, the production at the St. James's of Sir Arthur Pinero's "The Big Drum." The play in itself was slight, but gave Miss Irene Vanbrugh and Sir George Alexander some opportunities of fine acting. October opened with a new play by Mr. Strange Hall, "The Stormy Petrel" at the Criterion. Miss Margaret Halston was delightful as the "Petrel," and Mr. Jerrold Robertshaw played very remarkably the Wyndhamesque part of a middle-aged lover. Mr. Sheldon's "Romance" was another importation from the States. Miss Doris Keane, a famous American actress, gave an interesting interpretation of the character of an operatic diva, a rival of Patti, and Mr. Owen Nares played charmingly as the young minister to whom her attractions are nearly fatal. Towards the end

of the month a really first-rate farce was produced at the Criterion, Mr. Walter Ellis's "A Little Bit of Fluff," the comic hero of which was played by Mr. Ernest Thesiger; his performance was wonderful. "Stop Thief" at the New, another American "crook" play, highly diverting, and "Mavourneen," a historical play dealing with the Court of Charles II. in which Miss Lily Elsie appeared with all her old charm, were also produced during the last week of October. Nothing new was produced during November, and the only important dramatic event of December was the production at the Kingsway of Mr. Algernon Blackwood's "The Starlight Express," adapted from his novel "A Prisoner in Fairyland." Mr. O. B. Clarence and Miss Mercia Cameron gave fine interpretations of their parts, and the many children on the stage were delightful. Sir Edward Elgar's music which accompanied this piece was extraordinarily beautiful.

III. MUSIC.

Public music in the last year was in the nature rather of a series of spasmodic efforts than a co-ordinated whole. Incidentally there were perhaps as many public performances, especially in London, as in the year before or even in the *ante bellum* days; but it were futile to state that on the whole the quality was of the same high standard. Most of the old-established institutions maintained their standard of performance, no doubt, but while the war chastened the spirit of enterprise, if any, of several of these institutions, it had a most extraordinary effect in giving rise to a spirit of emulation among those musicians hitherto unheard of in public concert-rooms. The War or Charity concert brought forward scores of quite incompetent singers and performers of one kind or another, and in this way music was quantitatively much as usual in recent years, but in this way only.

It was an *annus mirabilis* for opera in English. Indeed it is open to doubt if London ever or at least in recent years has suffered or enjoyed, as the case may be, so great a multitude of performances of this kind of opera. The first season began at the Shaftesbury Theatre on February 6, with Offenbach's swan song, "Tales of Hoffmann," a work that proved itself again and again during this season and others that followed to be a most potent attraction. Among the other operas given, all of which were familiar, were the usual Italian repertoire, "Madama Butterfly," "Cavalleria Rusticana," "Pagliacci," and so on. Many of the performances were excellent if none was of supreme brilliance. As a fact these performances formed a kind of school for the gaining of experience, and as such were of real value. In October a similar season was started at the same theatre under the auspices of Mr. Thomas Beecham and Mr. Robert Courtneidge. Tentative though this was, and although the extreme limit for the season was announced to be six weeks, so great was the public success that the season was extended to ten weeks, and again, after an interval of a fortnight for rehearsals, the theatre opened on December 27 for a further season of six weeks. Now, however, the scheme was enlarged so as to include several new operas. Of these one was produced in the last week of the year, namely a setting for the stage of the fifteenth century morality play "Everyman" by Madame Liza Lehmann, with Miss Edith Clegg in the title-*rôle*. It met with poor success.

On May 29 the Russian tenor Vladimir Rosing opened a season of opera at the London Opera House, which, though it proved financially a failure from a variety of causes, was yet productive of much that was interesting. During its short course first performances here were given of Chaikovsky's "Pikovaya Dama" and of Rachmaninov's youthful "Aleko." These two performances in point of fact raised the summer season of music out of the mire of dulness. Coincidentally Thomas Beecham gave a season of Promenade Concerts at the Royal Albert Hall, at which he and Landon Ronald were the conductors. A feature was the absence of all German music and the introduction of much French and some Russian music; but nothing that was new was given.

The Royal Philharmonic Society, which had survived Waterloo, had a very fair season, its one hundred and third, good testimony to its worth being forthcoming when at its close the guarantors were not called upon for extra subscriptions, a noteworthy fact. The concerts, five in number, took place between January 26 and April 13. Of these Thomas Beecham conducted three, while one was directed by Sir Hubert Parry, Sir Edward Elgar, O.M., and Percy Pitt. The one hundred and fourth season, which in part belongs to 1915, began on November 1, but henceforth the whole of the concerts are to be conducted by Beecham, the first permanent and the first native conductor to be appointed for many years. That the move was wise the large attendance has proved.

The old-established Choral Societies went their way looking not at all for that which is new, though it is but fair to state that the London Choral Society, under Arthur Fagge, produced two slight works by Woodman and Rathbone at one of their concerts. Choral Societies, as a fact, suffered more than orchestras by depletion of their ranks for military purposes, and it is therefore to their credit that they were able to continue operations at all in some cases. The slight outcry that arose against the performance of any German music died away when it was realised that if this cry were to be allowed to weigh there could be no performances of "Elijah," "Messiah," "The Creation" and so on. On the whole the choral concerts were indisputably dull.

On the other hand there were many excellent orchestral concerts or concerts combined of orchestra and chorus. The London Symphony Orchestra went through its season according to the programme laid down in the beginning; few new works were performed, but chiefly those which had in the past proved attractive. It is worth recording that for this very reason these familiar works lost at least temporarily their power of attraction, and towards the end of the year there was some talk of the concerts being abandoned. The Queen's Hall Symphony Concerts likewise confined their programmes almost entirely to the old and the familiar, and here again the audiences were not so large as was expected. The Sunday Concerts of the New Symphony Orchestra at the Albert Hall, conducted by Landon Ronald, remained unaltered, but in the midst of the season of Promenade Concerts in Queen's Hall, under Sir Henry J. Wood, the directors were seized with a panic and abandoned all new things, owing it was said rather inconsequently to the scare of air raids. Acting on a suggestion of the writer the directors undertook a series of *matinée* concerts which proved successful for the short period of its existence. During the greater part of the autumn a

large number of evening concerts were given at 6 or 6.15 instead of two hours later as usual so that the audience could reach home early. It is not quite clear if this change worked successfully, for the hour was too early for the business folk and too late for others.

Record should be made of several glorified charity concerts which were of genuine interest. The Festival concerts of British music given under the joint conductorship of Beecham and Mlynarski in Queen's Hall were not only of local interest but gathered a fresh interest from the fact that it was known to be the intention of Mlynarski to take with him to Russia that British music which proved itself the most valuable. Elgar's "Polonia" was produced: it was written for this festival. This music was subsequently played in Moscow, in August. Before he left England for an Australian appointment Henri Verbrugghen gave a Brahms-Beethoven-Bach Festival in Queen's Hall which failed to prove attractive, and in December in the same hall a fine concert of Slav music, representative of Russia, Serbia, Poland, and the Czechs, undertaken by Vladimir Rosing on behalf of the Serbian Red Cross, proved to be the best concert of its kind of the year. Curiously enough the feature of the three important concerts given for British music under the auspices of Isidore de Lara was the recitation by Madame Réjane of Cammaerts's French poem "Chantons, Belges, Chantons!" the music to which, by Sir Edward Elgar, was the most interesting and important musical outcome of the war. Next in interest and importance was Frank Bridge's "Lament," for strings, this written in memory of those lost in the *Lusitania*.

The excellent Société des Concerts Français, the Classical Concert Society, the Holbrooke Chamber Concerts, the Concerts of the New, the Philharmonic, the London, the English, quartet parties all duly took place, many of them with extremely interesting programmes; indeed there was something of a revival of interest in chamber music after some years of apparent neglect. Among the principal individual concert-givers (in a year when recitals hardly existed) were Madame Clara Butt, whose concert for the Red Cross resulted in a sum of about 8,000*l.* being handed to the charity; Isidore de Lara who continued uninterruptedly for more than a year to give several concerts per week for charity or for the aid of British musicians; Miss Alys Bateman, whose Russian concerts for the blind were of interest; and literally there were thousands of semi-private concerts given in hospitals by some of the most distinguished musicians. All the provincial festivals were abandoned save only the competition festivals.

During the year many eminent musicians died. Of these chief was Skryabin, a bright and a shining light of modern Russia. Edward Mason, the founder of the choir which bears his name, and Denis Browne, late organist to Guy's Hospital, were killed in the war; and other musicians were Dr. Cummings, Henry Bird, Von Lengyel, once famous as a prodigy pianist; D'Ambrosio, composer; Stavenhagen and Joseffy, pianists of real eminence; Goldmark, Taneiev, Russian musician; Neil Forsyth, manager at Covent Garden for many years, and Leschetizky, pianoforte pedagogue.

FINANCE AND COMMERCE IN 1915.

A YEAR ago the first steps taken to organise Great Britain financially and commercially for war were described in this chapter. The process of organisation continued steadily throughout 1915. No part of the financial machinery of Great Britain, the most individualistic of all nations, had ever been designed for war, and a great deal of it had to be readjusted. The intricate mechanism has stood the strain wonderfully well.

Particular interest has centred on the figures of oversea commerce, which the enemy has done everything in his power, though with little success, to hinder and restrict. In spite of all the efforts, the total volume of oversea trade amounted to 1,337,250,000*l.* sterling as compared with 1,222,750,000*l.* in 1914 and 1,403,500,000*l.* in 1913. Comparisons with pre-war figures are vitiated by the fact that the imports, as shown in the Board of Trade returns, do not include certain goods which at the time of importation were the property of the British or Allied Governments, and that exports, while including goods bought in the United Kingdom by or on behalf of the Governments of the Allies, exclude goods taken from British Government stores and depots or goods bought by His Majesty's Government and shipped in Government vessels.

Imports amounted to 853,750,000*l.* in 1915, as compared with 696,500,000*l.* in 1914 and 768,750,000*l.* in 1913. Exports were represented by 384,750,000*l.*, against 430,750,000*l.* in 1914 and 525,250,000*l.* in 1913. Re-exports amounted to 98,750,000*l.* as against 95,250,000*l.* in 1914 and 109,500,000*l.* in 1913. The figures were affected by the great increase in the prices of most commodities as compared with 1913 ; but the total volume of trade represented by them was very satisfactory. A less satisfactory feature was the large increase in the value of imports, as compared with the decrease in exports. This adverse balance caused the disorganisation of foreign exchanges, particularly the American Exchange, which was one of the principal problems with which the money market had to grapple.

The easy monetary conditions which ruled at the close of 1914 continued during the first six months of last year, until the issue towards the end of June of the Government $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. loan, to which the huge sum of 600,000,000*l.* was subscribed. Out of this loan repayments for advances amounting to about 160,000,000*l.* were made to the Bank of England. In March 50,000,000*l.* had been raised in Three Per Cent. Five Year Exchequer Bonds at an average price of 3*l.* 18*s.* per cent., and in April the Treasury announced that the Bank of England would receive applications for an unlimited amount of bills at rates fixed each day. The rates which varied afterwards in accordance with market conditions were at first $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for three months' bills, $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for six months' bills, and $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. for nine months' bills. In this way bills for nearly 400,000,000*l.* were sold. Early in May it was announced that the Bank would receive applications for

yearling bills at 3½ per cent. There was no other public loan until December 16, when an issue of Five Per Cent. Five Year Exchequer Bonds for an unlimited amount was announced. These bonds continued to be publicly advertised until the end of the year and were followed by the issue of bonds of small denominations through the Post Office.

A serious decline in the American rate of exchange was due to the fact that we were financing, not only our own purchases of war material from that country, but also, to a large extent, those of our Allies. Although the rate steadily declined for some months, it was not until late in the year that the Government adopted strong measures for dealing with the situation. In September an Anglo-French Commission, with Lord Reading and Sir Edward Holden as the principal British representatives, proceeded to New York, and arranged a loan of \$500,000,000 on the joint security of Great Britain and France. A further large credit granted by a syndicate of New York banks to a number of British banks was arranged. The exchange which in the closing months of 1914 was in our favour and stood at \$4 85½ cents in the beginning of the year fell to its lowest point, *viz.*, \$4 47 cents, on September 1, but from then onwards there was a steady recovery to \$4 74½ cents on December 31. In the closing weeks of the year, the Treasury adopted a scheme for mobilising British holdings of approved Canadian and United States Dollar securities, either by sale or loan to the Government for the purpose of making them available as collateral for further American loans and assisting the Exchange question.

The exchanges of our Allies moved entirely in favour of this country. The Paris cheque which at the opening of the year stood at 25 francs 05½ centimes rose steadily until it reached the high-water mark of 28 francs 15 centimes on August 16. At the end of the year the rate was 27 francs 73 centimes. The Petrograd exchange on London, which is quoted in roubles per 10% sterling, rose from 117 roubles to 160 roubles. Hopes of an improvement in this exchange were disappointed by the failure to force the Dardanelles. The Italian exchange rose from 25 lire 87 centimes to 31 lire 42 centimes. On the other hand, the Exchanges of the neutral countries such as Holland, Scandinavia, Spain and Switzerland moved against us owing to the restriction of exports from this country.

It was the adverse movement of the exchange in neutral countries, resulting in exports of bullion, which brought about a reduction in the gold reserve of the Bank of England, in spite of the substitution of much paper for gold in the currency of this country and very large receipts from South Africa. As compared with 69,493,610% at which the total stood on December 29, 1914, the amount had been reduced to 52,091,894% by the end of June and to 51,476,407% by the end of the year after placing 10,000,000% to the Currency Note Reserve. During the twelve months about 87,500,000% were sent abroad or set aside for neutral countries, but owing to large receipts from other sources abroad, the net efflux was only 10,000,000%.

In January an issue of 10,000,000% of French Government yearling bills was placed by the Bank of England at 5 per cent. discount, and in the following month an issue of Russian Treasury Bills to the same amount was also successfully arranged. At the end of the year subscriptions were invited in England to a French Government loan, issued on very attractive terms and about 24,000,000% was subscribed here.

Banks on the whole had a profitable year, though a decrease of

1,257,323,000*l.* was recorded in the return of the London Bankers' Clearing House, which showed a total of 13,407,725,000*l.* Work was naturally carried on under difficulties, in view of the large proportion of the staffs which joined the forces. It has been the practice of many banks to provide that all men who joined should be in receipt of incomes equivalent to what they were previously enjoying, and as a very large number of temporary clerks have had to be engaged the expenses of working have probably been increased. Towards the end of the year the closing hour was advanced from 4 P.M. to 3 P.M., in order to relieve the pressure on the overworked staffs. Not unnaturally, at a time when the banks were engrossed with affairs of great national importance, there was not the same number of amalgamations arranged as in previous years. The most important fusion was that between Barclay's Bank and the United Counties Bank (Ltd.). Another interesting development was an arrangement by which the London and South-Western Bank Ltd. and Messrs. Cox & Co. entered into a joint partnership with Messrs. Cox & Co. (France) (Ltd.) for the purpose of carrying on banking business in France. It seems probable that in future English banks will be much more fully represented on the Continent than in the past.

Stock Exchange firms had a very sorry time. Though the House, which had been closed since the outbreak of war, was reopened on January 4, drastic restrictions were placed on business in accordance with arrangements made between the Committee and the Treasury. Business could only be done on a cash basis, minimum prices were fixed and securities could only be dealt with which had been in physical possession in Great Britain since September, 1914. In March the minimum for Consols was reduced from 68½ to 66½, and when the new War Loan was issued the minimum was reduced further to 65. A very large number of holders converted their stock into the War Loan on the basis of 66½. On November 23 minimum prices were removed entirely from Consols, Annuities, and Colonial Corporation and Foreign Stocks, and dealings then took place in Consols on the basis of about 58½. The physical possession rule was also modified so to allow of the sale to the United States of American securities held in Allied and neutral countries.

The American market was the one market to show a substantial advance in prices on the year, owing to the great prosperity prevailing in the United States. In the foreign market Japanese stocks were very firm, a rise in Government Bonds being attributed largely to Sinking Fund purchases. Towards the end of the year the bonds of South American countries recovered to some extent in consequence of an improvement in economic conditions in South America. In the early part of the year Argentine Railway stocks declined in consequence of damage done by heavy floods and commercial depression, but in the later months, with the prospect of fine crops, there was some recovery.

The strain placed on the Mercantile Marine was very great indeed. With very few exceptions all the ships had been built for commerce in peace, yet, as Mr. Balfour pointed out in the House of Commons, they have been able to do for our Armies what a highly organised network of railways has done for the Armies of the Central Empires.

The requisitioning of ships for Government service proceeded steadily throughout the year. Ships were taken up to be commissioned as merchant cruisers, transports for troops, colliers to accompany the Fleet, supply ships, and for carrying various Government cargoes, such as sugar, timber or

grain. The withdrawal of so much tonnage was bound to make itself felt on rates of freight, and these advanced to levels previously unapproached. The freight for wheat from the Atlantic ports of the United States to the West of England rose to 13s. 6d. a quarter and in January advanced further to 16s. 3d., which compares with a rate of about 2s. a quarter before the war. The Argentine wheat rate rose to 130s. a ton, as compared with 12s. 6d. before the war, and in the early weeks of this year rose further to 150s. The coal freight from the Tyne to Port Said rose to 70s., a ten-fold increase since the beginning of the war, and the coal freights to Italy, the Atlantic coaling stations, and South America rose in proportion. The sole reason for the extraordinary rises was the law of supply and demand. While the supply of vessels available for commerce was perpetually diminishing little could be done in the way of new construction, since practically all the shipyards of the country were closely employed on naval work. Owners frankly admitted that the rates were far too high, but asked what they could do when two or three merchants were competing against each other for one vessel. Every time the Government requisitioned a liner, her owners had to go into the market and charter a tramp steamer to take her place, this process itself forcing up freights. Thus, whereas, during the early weeks of the war steamers could have been chartered at 3s. per ton deadweight per month, by the end of the year the rate had risen to about 30s.

The Transport Department of the Admiralty was much criticised for uneconomical management of the ships it requisitioned. There was undoubtedly waste, but it was pointed out in Parliament that the responsibility for this rested largely with the Military authorities, who naturally were not infrequently forced to subordinate commercial considerations to Army requirements. The policy of the Transport Department, initiated early last year at the wish of owners themselves, was to requisition tonnage in proportion to the size of individual Fleets. As the Government rates of hire were far below those obtainable in the open market, this was obviously the fairest system for owners. But towards the end of the year requisitioning was so heavy that it became clear some special measures would have to be taken to preserve, at any rate, the most important of the liner services. Some of the lines found it quite impossible to maintain their regular trades, and neutral companies have been quick to seize their opportunity.

In November the Government set up a Licensing Committee to which all owners desiring to trade between neutral countries would have to apply. This Committee, by refusing to grant licences for vessels to load coals in North America for certain countries where there was serious port congestion, was able to exercise a favourable influence on the North Atlantic grain trade. At the same time a committee was also set up with powers to requisition vessels for the carriage of foodstuffs, but the practice it adopted was not actually to requisition the ships but to encourage owners to place their vessels in the grain trade. Shortly afterwards a committee was appointed to consider what measures could be taken to relieve the congestion at British ports. It frequently happened that, owing to the lack of labour and interruption of the transit facilities, vessels were kept several weeks in port before being able to discharge their cargoes, whereas in normal years they would have been able to discharge and be ready to load again within a

The so-called submarine blockade which was timed to start on February 18 failed completely, though during the first few months a large number of ships were sunk in Northern waters, the largest being the *Lusitania*. The menace was, however, taken well in hand by the Navy and little was heard of such losses in the later months of the year. In September the enemy began to turn their attention to the Mediterranean and during the last four months of the year a number of losses were suffered. Financially the heaviest individual loss was that of the Japanese liner *Yasaka Maru* at the end of the year. Two other liners which were lost during the closing days were the P. & O. Company's *Persia* and the Glen liner *Glengyle*.

It may be assumed that very large sums will have to be handed over to the Government by shipowners under the new tax on excess profits. This has been used as excusing the extraordinarily high freights, but it should be noted that the rise during the last few weeks of the year was so great that many shipowners would be as well off with 50 per cent. of the excess profits on the later scale as they would have been if left with the whole of the profits on the scale earned before Mr. McKenna's Budget was introduced. Not improbably marine underwriters will have substantial amounts to pay under the excess profits tax, though their profits must have been considerably reduced by unfavourable experience in the closing months. Casualties due to marine causes were fairly heavy, the suppression of the usual aids to navigation probably having much to do with the unfavourable loss ratio.

A very large business was transacted by underwriters during the first six months of the year in connexion with the risk of damage from enemy aircraft raids. Since bankers commonly insisted on merchants covering their goods against such risks and the market was a limited one, very high rates had often to be paid. A Government scheme of Insurance came into effect in July and most of the Fire Insurance Companies undertook to act as agents in connexion with it.

Fire Insurance Companies had a comparatively uneventful year. Losses at home were rather heavier, but the experience in the United States and Canada and in the foreign field generally was more favourable.

For life offices the most serious problem was that of the depreciation in the value of securities, and in the autumn the question of postponing the actuarial valuations until after the end of the war was mooted. Many offices, however, were not disposed to make any departure from the usual practice. They were quite prepared to face the music, though the prospects of satisfactory bonus distributions during the present quinquennium have been seriously impaired. Mortality was heavy. Apart from military losses, all offices suffered from exceptionally heavy mortality among elderly civilians caused, presumably, by the strain and anxiety of the war.

On the average, prices of the principal commodities advanced by about 40 per cent. during the year. The rise was especially notable in raw materials for manufacture, since these had declined in the closing months of 1914, whereas prices of foodstuffs had advanced from the early days of the war. The chief advance in the metal market occurred in spelter, which was in demand for munitions. Notable rises occurred in copper and tin while among textiles both wool and cotton were higher in spite of the fact that Germany and Austria were no longer able to be large buyers.

OBITUARY

OF

EMINENT PERSONS DECEASED IN 1915.

JANUARY.

1. **Sir James Duckworth**, a provision merchant on a very large scale, died at Rochdale, in his 75th year. He was Mayor of Rochdale, 1891-3. In 1908 he received a knighthood.

— **Carl Goldmark**, the Austrian composer, died in Vienna in his 85th year. His most successful opera, "Die Königin von Saba," was produced by the Carl Rosa Opera Company in Manchester in 1910.

— **Admiral Charles Henry Cross**, late Superintendent of Devonport Dockyard, died suddenly at his residence in Plymouth. During his term at Devonport the *Temeraire* was completed and the *Collingwood*, *Indefatigable* and *Lion* launched.

— **Arthur Roope Hunt, F.L.S., F.G.S.**, barrister-at-law, died in his 72nd year. He was an authority on the submarine geology of the English Channel.

— **Sir Frederick Harrison**, formerly general manager of the London and North-Western Railway, died in his 71st year. In 1900 he served on the Royal Commission that sat to inquire into the working of the military hospitals in South Africa. He received a knighthood in 1902.

2. **Lord Bradford** died in London after a short illness in his 70th year. He was educated at Harrow and served in the 1st Life Guards from 1864 to 1867. From 1867 to 1875 and from 1880 to 1885 he sat in the House of Commons as a Conservative. He succeeded to the title in 1898. He married in 1869 a daughter of the ninth Earl of Scarborough.

2. **H. J. Roby**, the scholar, educational reformer and legal writer, died at Grasmere, aged 74 years. He was made Secretary to Lord Palmerston's Commission, appointed on December 23, 1864, to do for the lesser public schools what had already been done for the greater. He wrote two of the chief parts of the report, and these two chapters were greatly instrumental in passing the Endowed Schools Act, 1869. He wrote many notable books on Law. From 1890 to 1895 he represented the Eccles division in the House of Commons. In 1892 he was made LL.D. of Cambridge and elected an honorary fellow of St. John's.

3. **Percy Illingworth**, the Chief Government Whip, died in London. He was born at Bradford in 1869 and educated at Rugby and Cambridge. Mr. Illingworth was called to the Bar by the Inner Temple in 1894. His whole interests, however, were centred in politics, and in 1906 he had the unusual experience of gaining a seat for his party without a contest. In 1912 he succeeded the Master of Elibank as Patronage Secretary when the latter went to the House of Lords as Lord Murray. His period of office was a most strenuous and difficult one; but his skill in handling men and his excellent business capacity enabled him to overcome all difficulties. In 1907 he married a daughter of the late Mr. George Coats.

— **Dr. King Irwin**, Archdeacon of Armagh, died suddenly in church.

— **Professor Anton von Werner**, the eminent German historical painter, died in Berlin at the age of 72 years.

3. **William Strutt**, a painter of considerable merit, died in his 90th year. He belonged to a family which was associated with art for centuries. He studied in Paris, and won bronze medals at exhibitions which were held in London in the seventies.

— **Mrs. George du Maurier**, widow of George du Maurier, the artist and novelist, died in London.

— **James Elroy Flecker**, the poet and novelist, died at Davos-Platz. He was one of the contributors to the recent anthology of modern Georgian verse. In 1913 he published "The Golden Journey to Samarkand."

5. **Second Lieutenant Francis E. Fitzjohn Crisp**, 1st Grenadier Guards, was killed in action. He had considerable ability as a painter and won many distinctions at the Royal Academy, including the gold medal and travelling scholarship for oil painting.

— **Edmund F. J. Deprez**, who died in his 64th year, was a member of the well-known firm of art dealers, Messrs. P. & D. Colnaghi & Co., from 1894 to 1907. Mr. Deprez succeeded in getting out of Italy the Chigi Botticelli and the bronze statue of Bindo d'Antonio Altoviti, by Benvenuto Cellini.

6. **Sir Owen Roberts**, one of the pioneers of technical education in London, died at Guildford in his 80th year. He received his knighthood in 1888 in recognition of his services to technical education. He was one of the promoters of Somerville College, Oxford. He held many appointments, and was a member of the governing body of the Imperial College of Science and Technology at South Kensington.

8. **Viscount Ingestre**, the only son and heir of the Earl of Shrewsbury, died in his 33rd year. He became second lieutenant in the Royal Horse Guards in 1900 and in the following year was promoted to lieutenant. He married Lady Winifred Constance Hester Paget in 1904 and leaves a son.

11. **Mrs. John Wood**, the famous comedy actress, died at the age of 83. She made her first public appearance at Southampton. In the early sixties she went to the United States as a burlesque actress and achieved a great success. In 1866 she returned to England and turned to comedy. Her greatest triumphs were reached in the Pinero farces—"The Magistrate," "The School-

mistress" and "Dandy Dick"—which were played at the Old Court Theatre. When the new Court Theatre was built Mrs. John Wood and Mr. Arthur Chudleigh took on the management and produced "Mamma" and "The Cabinet Minister" as well as other plays. Her performances were inimitable and she was one of the few actresses who could be vulgar without giving offence. Her last appearance was in 1905 at Drury Lane in "The Prodigal Son."

12. **Lord Estcourt**, died at the age of 76. He was the first baron, and raised to the peerage in 1903. Lord Estcourt was M.P. for North Wilts from 1874 to 1885.

13. **The Earl of Feversham**, died in his 86th year. He sat in the House of Commons for nearly thirteen years as Conservative. He represented East Retford 1852-7, and North Riding of Yorkshire 1859-67. In the early days of factory legislation he did much to improve the conditions of the juvenile workers of Yorkshire. He was a large land-owner and did much good work for agriculture. He was at one time president of the Royal Agricultural Society and the Yorkshire Agricultural Society. Lord Feversham married in 1851.

14. **The Rev. R. M. Benson**, founder of the Cowley Brotherhood, died at Oxford in his 91st year. Mr. Benson reintroduced community life in the Church of England. His band of mission-clergy became widely known and their services were much in demand and in course of time they were known as the Mission Society of St. John the Evangelist, Cowley. By 1870 their members increased, but it has never been a large society. Its missionary work, however, is well known in India and South Africa. Father Benson was a mystical writer and his best-known works are "Spiritual Readings" for the various seasons of the Church's year and "War-songs of the Prince of Peace."

— **Mr. Lionel Mackinder**, the actor, was killed in action. He was one of the first actors to enlist at the outbreak of the war. He married Miss Gracie Leigh, the actress.

15. **Vice-Admiral Sir George Nares**, the Polar explorer, died in his 84th year. He entered the Navy in 1845 and was promoted to the rank of Commander in 1862. In 1872 he commanded the *Challenge*, but was recalled in 1874 to take command of a proposed Arctic expedition. The expedition, consisting of

the *Alert* and the *Discovery*, left England in 1875. The *Alert* under Nares wintered in latitude 82° 27'. In this latitude the sun disappeared for 142 days. The failing health of the men made Nares resolve not to risk another winter there, and they arrived at Valentia in October. He was made K.C.B. on December 1 and was awarded the Gold Medal of the Royal Geographical Society in 1877, and in 1879 the Gold Medal of the French Geographical Society. In 1878 he published his "Narrative of a Voyage to the Polar Sea during 1875-1876 in H.M. Ships *Alert* and *Discovery*." He became a rear-admiral on the retired list on January 1, 1887, and vice-admiral on March 26, 1892.

15. **Miss Mary Slessor**, a missionary of the United Free Church of Scotland, died at the age of 65 years.

16. **The Rev. W. H. Shawcross**, died on January 16. He was ordained in 1883. After two years he received the benefice of Bretforton, where he became a most popular lecturer on diverse subjects. He was much loved by his parishioners. In 1908 he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Historical Society.

— **Brigadier-General Hailes**, died at the age of 70. He fought in the Afghan War of 1878-80. He was severely wounded in the Burmese Expedition of 1886 and was mentioned in despatches.

— **Mr. John Francis Sykes Gooday**, died of pneumonia. At the time of his death he was director of the Great Eastern and of the London, Brighton, and South Coast Companies.

— **Mary, Lady Dick-Cunyngham** was widow of Sir Robert Keith Alexander Dick-Cunyngham, ninth baronet of Prestonfield.

— **Admiral George Morris Henderson, M.V.O.**, died at the age of 68. He entered the Navy as a cadet in 1865 and retired from the service in 1908. He was promoted admiral in 1913.

— **Colonel the Hon. Everard Digby**, died at the age of 63 years. He served in the Suakin Expedition in 1885 and attained the rank of colonel in 1890. He retired in 1895.

17. **Lord Justice Kennedy**, died suddenly in London. He was born in 1846 and came of a family who were distinguished for their classical learning. In 1870-1 he was Mr. Goschen's private secretary at the old Poor Law Board, and was called to the Bar by

Lincoln's Inn in January, 1871. He joined the Northern Circuit and settled as a local practitioner in Liverpool, where he acquired a large business, particularly in mercantile and shipping cases. He took silk in 1885. About this time he took an active part in politics and fought three elections as a Liberal. In 1892, on the resignation of George Denman, Kennedy was appointed a Judge of the Queen's Bench Division. In 1907, on the promotion of the late Lord Collins to the House of Lords and of Lord Cozens-Hardy to the Mastership of the Rolls, Mr. Kennedy was appointed Lord Justice. He was president of the International Law Association.

17. **Carl Haag**, the Victorian Court painter, died in his 95th year. He was born in Bavaria and settled in England in 1847. In that year he gave up painting in oils and became a student in water-colour drawing at the Royal Academy. He was elected a full member of the Royal Water Colour Society in 1853.

— **General Stössel**, the defender of Port Arthur, died at the age of 67 years. He entered the cadet corps at the age of ten years and became an officer in 1866. He was raised to the rank of general in 1899. In 1908 he was condemned to death by a court-martial owing to the circumstances in which Port Arthur surrendered. The sentence was altered to ten years' internment. After spending fifteen months in a fortress he was released almost ruined in health.

18. **Sir William Augustus Ferguson-Davie** was the third baronet, and succeeded to the title in 1907 on the death of his elder brother.

— **Colonel Henry Napier McRae, C.B., A.D.C.** to Queen Victoria and King Edward, died at Petersfield, aged 54 years. He held the Royal Humane Society's silver medal and the Stanhope gold medal, 1886, for saving life.

20. **Sir Samuel Hoare**, died at the age of 73 years. In 1886 he was returned Unionist member for Norwich, which constituency he represented for twenty years. He retired in 1906. He was created a baronet in 1899.

— **Lord Ardilaun**, the great philanthropist and social worker, died in Dublin at the age of 74 years. He succeeded his father as second baronet in 1868. By his father's will the famous Guinness Brewery passed to him and his younger brother. Soon after, however, he dis-

posed of his share to his brother. He was an ardent Conservative, but was better known as a philanthropist than as a politician. In 1874 he was elected member for the City of Dublin and he held the seat until 1880. In 1891 Lord Ardilaun purchased St. Stephen's-Green in Dublin and converted it into a most charming garden which is almost unrivalled for its beauty as a public park. He married in 1871, but leaves no issue, so the peerage becomes extinct.

22. Lady Geraldine Somerset, died after a short illness in her 83rd year.

— **Emily, Lady Annaly**, died in London. She married the second Lord Annaly in 1853, and had five sons and three daughters.

— **Sir Herbert William Cameron Carduff**, a Puisne Judge of the High Court, Calcutta, died at the age of 52. He entered the Indian Civil Service in 1883 and was called to the Bar by the Inner Temple in 1906. In 1913 he received a knighthood.

— **Ernest de Munck**, the Belgian violoncellist, died in his 75th year. His long musical career caused him to know all the notable musicians of his time, amongst whom Wagner, Rubinstein, Liszt and Joachim may be mentioned. In 1898 he became a professor at the Royal Academy of Music. He married the sister of Adelina Patti.

— **Alexander Elder**, one of the founders of the Elder Dempster Line and the British and African Steam Navigation Company (Limited), died at the age of 81.

— **Frederick Jackson**, died at Hindhead, at the age of 83 years. He interested himself greatly in public affairs and did much good work. He was very fond of music and devoted much of his time to literary and artistic work.

23. General T. Mowbray Baumgartner, an Indian Mutiny veteran, died in his 91st year.

— **Thomas Young**, who served in the Mutiny as a sergeant, died at the age of 74.

24. Major-General Sir John William Campbell, Bart., died at the age of 78. Sir John Campbell served in the Crimea, the China Campaign of 1860 and the Afghan Campaign.

24. Rudolph Schon, died in London. He was Counsellor of State and Advisor to the Danish Government in Agriculture. He gave valuable assistance to the fifty members of the Land Agents' Society of England who visited Denmark in 1914, and was elected an honorary member of that society.

27. Robert Cooper Seaton, died in his 63rd year. He was a well-known classical scholar and until 1914 was treasurer of the Classical Association. He was a great authority on Napoleon.

— **Sir John Hamilton Franks, C.B.**, died in his 67th year. He was Secretary of the Irish Land Commission from 1888 to 1910. He was made a Commander of the Bath in 1896 and a knight in 1902.

— **Lady Julia Hay**, died in London. She was the seventh daughter of the eighth Marquess of Tweeddale.

— **Hon. Drever Joicey**, died at a London nursing home at the age of 28. He was the youngest son of Lord Joicey of Ford Castle, Northumberland.

28. William Edgar Allen, chairman and founder of the firm of Edgar Allen & Co. (Limited), Imperial Steel Works, Sheffield, died at Sheffield. He was a philanthropist and made many important gifts in Sheffield. He erected the Edgar Allen Institute for medico-mechanical treatment.

— **Harold Crabtree**, died in his 41st year. He was housemaster at Charterhouse School.

— **Lieut.-General Sir George Bryan Milman, K.C.B.**, died in London in his 92nd year. In 1839 he obtained his commission as second lieutenant in the 5th Regiment of Foot and for the next twenty-six years he served abroad. His regiment helped in the relief of Lucknow and for his services he received the brevet of lieutenant-colonel and the grant of a year's service. In 1870 he attained the rank of major-general and was appointed Major of the Tower of London which post he held for forty years. In 1905 he received a knighthood.

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FEBRUARY.

1. **Major-General Sir Luke O'Connor, V.C., K.C.B.**, died in London in his 84th year. He enlisted in the 23rd Royal Welsh Fusiliers at the age of 17. With his regiment he landed in the Crimea early in 1854. He then was made sergeant. He received his lieutenancy in 1855 and was present at the siege and fall of Sevastopol. For his service in the Crimea, besides receiving his commission, he was one of the first to receive the Victoria Cross, and was decorated with the medal and two clasps, the Sardinian and Turkish medals and the 5th Class of the Medjidieh. In 1857 he served under Sir Colin Campbell in the relief of Lucknow. In 1858 he was promoted to captain. In 1884 he succeeded to the command of the regiment in which he had enlisted. He was made C.B. in 1906 and K.C.B. in 1913.

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2. **Rev. Ellis Edwards, D.D.**, died after a short illness in his 71st year. He was pastor of a Welsh Presbyterian church at Oswestry, and afterwards he became Principal and Professor of Dogmatics at the Bala Calvinistic Methodist College.

— **Colonel Charles Vernon Hume, M.V.O., D.S.O.**, died at the age of 55 years. He was educated at Marlborough. From 1885 to 1892 he was A.D.C. to the Commander-in-Chief in India. In the South African War he received the D.S.O. In 1911 he entered the service of the Siamese Government.

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4. **Miss Braddon (Mrs. John Maxwell)**, the well-known novelist, died at Richmond in her 78th year. In her early years she showed great aptitude for writing and at the age of eighteen she contributed to a Brighton newspaper. In 1862 she published "Lady Audley's Secret," which made her at once famous. The book went into many editions and was a most astonishing success. Miss Braddon possessed a marvellous gift of invention and was an admirable storyteller. For more than fifty years she continued to write and she always found a vast number of admirers. She married her publisher, and her son, Mr. W. B. Maxwell, is a well-known novelist.

6. **Dr. Edward Gilpin Bagshawe**, titular Archbishop of Seleucia, died at the age of 86 years. In 1852 he was ordained priest of the congregation of the Oratory; and in 1874 he was consecrated Roman Catholic Bishop of Nottingham which See he held until 1901.

— **William Mann Trollope**, the senior partner in the firm of Messrs. Trollope & Winckworth, solicitors, died at the age of 91 years. Mr. Trollope was solicitor to Lord St. Leonards, a former Lord Chancellor, and attended to read his will at his death. It was lost; and this led to the famous St. Leonards Will Case. It was chiefly owing to Mr. Trollope's forethought and suggestion that the will which did not exist was finally proved.

7. **Charles John Spencer George Canning**, third Baron Garvagh, in the peerage of Ireland, died at the age of 63 years. He succeeded his father in 1871. The family of Canning is very ancient.

— **Arthur Keen**, died at Birmingham at the age of 80. He was a very successful business man and started life as a clerk in a railway company. He was connected with many large iron-work undertakings, and in 1912 he became chairman of Guest, Keen & Nettlefolds (Limited), which had a capital of 5,000,000*l.* and employed 50,000 people.

8. **The Marquess of Londonderry**, died at Stockton-on-Tees in his 63rd year. In 1878 he entered Parliament as member for the County of Down; and continued to sit until he succeeded to the marquessate in 1884. The greater part of his political life was devoted to the Union; which for family reasons as well as for strong political convictions

he felt bound to uphold. At the age of 34 he was appointed Viceroy of Ireland. Here he had a difficult task to undertake, and he did it so effectively that the Nationalists hated him even more than Mr. Balfour who was then Chief Secretary. Lord Londonderry left the Viceregal Lodge in 1889. In 1900 he was made Postmaster-General, and two years later he became President of the Board of Education. Lord Londonderry was one of the largest coal-owners in Durham. His life was greatly devoted to the public service and his untiring zeal and capacity for hard work made his services invaluable in any undertaking.

8. **Canon Church**, of Wells Cathedral, died at the age of 92. He was associated with Wells Cathedral for over sixty years, having been appointed Prebendary in 1855. He had a great love of the Cathedral and published catalogues of its charters and records, and wrote a work on it as well as on the palace and library.

9. **Joshua Rowntree**, a leading member of the Society of Friends, died near Scarborough. He was Liberal member for Scarborough from 1886 to 1892.

— **General Lord William Seymour, K.C.V.O.**, Colonel of the Coldstream Guards, died in his 77th year. In 1851 he was appointed to the Royal Navy as a cadet; he did not remain long in the service, however, and was appointed ensign and lieutenant in the Coldstream Guards in 1855. He had a great practical knowledge of military affairs and in 1875 he was appointed assistant adjutant and quarter-master-general to the troops in the Southern District in Portsmouth. He was very successful there and in 1878 he was transferred to Aldershot. He afterwards went to Egypt and was present in the action of Mahuto and at Tel-el-Kebir, and was awarded the medal with clasp, the Khedive's Star and the Fifth Class of the Osmanieh. In 1889 he was promoted a major-general. In 1896 he became a lieutenant-general and in 1898 he went to Canada to take command of the forces in British North America. He returned to England in 1900. He was promoted a general in 1902, and held the office of Lieutenant of the Tower of London from 1902 until 1905. He had been Colonel of the Coldstream Guards since 1911.

10. **Colonel Montague Poyntz Ricketts**, a mutiny veteran, died at

Bath. He served throughout the Indian Mutiny Campaign of 1857-8 and was mentioned in despatches. After the Mutiny he served in the Central Provinces from 1859 as an assistant commissioner. He retired from the service in 1890.

11. Colonel Sir Edmund Antrobus, Bart., died at the age of 67. He will be remembered as the owner of Stonehenge, which was included in the Amesbury Abbey estate. He took a great interest and share in local administration. He was an alderman of the Wilts County Council, a justice of the peace, and a member of the Amesbury Rural District Council. Sir Edmund was formerly Colonel of the 3rd Battalion of the Grenadier Guards.

— **Charles Cuninghame Scott,** chairman of Scott's Shipbuilding and Engineering Company (Limited), of Greenock, died at the age of 48. He completed his education at Edinburgh University between 1885 and 1888. During his vacations he worked as an apprentice in Scott's works in Greenock. On the death of his father he was appointed one of the managing directors of the works, and two years later, 1905, he became chairman.

12. Baroness von Poellnitz died at the age of 100 years 11 months. She was Miss Eleanor Mary Elliot, daughter of Mr. James Elliot of Wolflee, Roxburghshire, who was born 1772.

13. Colonel Mac Iver-Campbell, C.B., died at the age of 78 years. He served in the Mutiny Campaign and was present at the capture of Lucknow. He was with Lord Roberts in the march from Kabul to Kandahar. He received the Mutiny medal and clasp for Lucknow, the Kabul medal and clasp for Kandahar and was made C.B. in 1908.

— **The Rev. W. Fortescue Long,** a missionary at Norfolk Island, was drowned in successfully attempting to save a boy. He was a former curate at Leeds Parish Church.

— **Lord Gwydyr** died in London at the age of 74 years. He did not succeed to the title until he was sixty-nine. The Barony, which was created in 1796, now becomes extinct, as Lord Gwydyr left no male issue.

— **Rene James Tahourdin** died at the age of 69 years. He was admitted a solicitor in 1869. He had been in prac-

tice for many years as a Parliamentary agent.

13. Carl Ferdinand Henry Bolckow, one of the original directors of the iron and steel firm of Bolckow, Vaughan & Co., died in his 80th year.

— **Canon Buckle,** Rector of Astley, died suddenly in his 62nd year. After he left school he became an architect and his practice was chiefly in the restoration of churches. He did not continue in his profession, however, but after passing a few years at Chichester College he joined the Church. He was ordained deacon in 1883 and priest in 1884. He became Rector of Astley in 1894. He was an ideal parish priest and was much loved by all his parishioners.

14. Frederick Oldershaw Smithers died in his 82nd year. He was joint managing director of the Buenos Aires & Pacific Railway Company. He was a great philanthropist and was chairman of the London Society for Teaching the Blind, and an honorary captain of the London Diocesan Church Lads' Brigade.

16. Dr. Anderson Smith died in his 90th year. After twenty years' practice he gave up his time to genealogical research. He was an expert on all branches of heraldry.

— **Rev. Dr. Thomas Kelly Cheyne,** the Biblical scholar and critic, died in his 74th year. Dr. Cheyne was educated at Merchant Taylors' School and Worcester College, Oxford, where he won the Chancellor's English essay and other prizes, also the Pusey and Ellerton Hebrew scholarship. In 1868 he was elected to a fellowship at Balliol. He wrote numerous works connected with the Old Testament. Perhaps his most important work was as joint editor with Dr. Sutherland Black, of the "Encyclopædia Biblica." In 1885 he was appointed Oriel Professor of the Interpretation of Holy Scripture at Oxford, but owing to ill-health he resigned in 1908.

17. Dr. Robert Linklater, Prebendary of St. Paul's, died in Kensington in his 76th year. He was ordained in 1863, and in 1869 he came to London as curate at St. Peters, London Docks. He remained there eleven years. He then became Vicar of Holy Trinity, Stroud Green, where he worked for twenty-five years. He was made Prebendary of St. Paul's Cathedral by the present Bishop of London in 1907.

17. **Mrs. Mary Thruston** died at the age of 88 years. She was the last surviving daughter of Captain Josiah Nisbet, R.N., stepson of Lord Nelson.

18. **The Rev. Henry Jerome de Salis** died at Virginia Water, aged 87 years. He was a Count of the Holy Roman Empire. He was educated at Eton and Oxford. From 1852 to 1872 he was Rector of Fringford.

— **Gunner Samuel Parsons** died at the age of 90 years. He was for over fifty years King's Gunner at Windsor Castle.

19. **Hon. John Edward Gordon** died at a nursing home at Bromley in his 66th year. He sat as the Unionist member for Brighton from 1911 to June 1914.

— **Sir Robert Lucas Lucas-Tooth**, died at Holme Lacy, Herefordshire, in his 71st year. In 1895 he unsuccessfully contested the Loughborough Division of Leicestershire. He gave large sums of money for philanthropic purposes; the most important was the foundation in 1913, by a gift of 50,000*l.*, of the Lucas-Tooth Boys' Training Fund. He was created a baronet in 1906.

20. **Sir Charles Augustus Hartley**, the distinguished engineer, died in London in his 90th year. In 1856 he began his career in hydraulic engineering and he practised with great success all over the world. In 1872 Sir Charles was appointed Consulting Engineer to the Danube Commission, which position he retained until 1907. He was knighted in 1862, made a K.C.M.G. in 1884, and received the Albert medal from the Society of Arts in 1903.

— **Sir William Eden** died in London in his 66th year. He served in the 28th regiment and then in the 8th Hussars and afterwards commanded the 2nd Durham Light Infantry. He will be best remembered for the law-suit which he had with Whistler over the painting of his wife's portrait. The case was finally fought out in the Paris law courts. Whistler was to keep the picture, on condition that he made it unrecognisable, and to repay Sir William the 100*l.* with 5 per cent interest.

— **Brigadier-General M. B. F. Kelly, C.B., D.S.O.**, died in his 58th year. He had been in command of the Royal Artillery, Southern Coast Defences, at Portsmouth since 1910.

20. **Dr. E. C. Seaton** died in London at the age of 68 years. He was well known as a medical officer of health and held positions in Nottingham and Chelsea, and subsequently became first health officer of the county of Surrey.

— **Mr. Gopal Krishna Gokhale, C.I.E.**, the well-known Indian political leader, died in Bombay in his 49th year. In 1900 he was elected to the Bombay Legislative Council, and two years later the non-official members of that body selected him to represent them on the Supreme Council. He became leader of the Indian "Opposition," and Lord Curzon recognised his earnest patriotism by recommending him for the C.I.E., which was bestowed in 1904. In 1905 he founded his Servants of India Society for the training of "national missionaries." He recognised that self-government was only attained after years of patient work and sacrifices. He also was at the head of the movement for the compulsory free education of boys.

21. **Brigadier-General John Edmond Gough, V.C., C.B., C.M.G., A.D.C.**, died at Estaires of wounds received two days before, at the age of 43 years. He was the son of the late General Sir Charles Gough, V.C., and nephew of the late General Sir Hugh Gough, V.C. This was almost the only instance where three members of the same family wore the Victoria Cross. He first saw active service in British Central Africa in 1896-7. Brigadier-General Gough won his V.C. for conspicuous bravery at Daratoleh in 1902. The death of General Gough was specially noted and deplored in Sir John French's despatch of April 5.

22. **James Spicer**, the senior director of the firm of James Spicer & Sons, wholesale stationers, died in his 70th year at Eltham.

— **Colonel John Robertson, C.I.E.**, a Crimean and Indian Mutiny veteran, died near Guildford at the age of 78 years.

— **Colonel Thomas Holbrow Goldney, C.B.**, late of the Indian Army, died at Bedford in his 68th year.

— **Miss Mary Beckett** of Somerby Park, Gainsborough, died in her 89th year.

— **William Scott Douglas**, the poet, historian, and writer, died at sea. He published "Cromwell's Scotch Campaigns" in 1898, and in 1914 a small

volume of poetry "The Soul of Scotland."

26. Major-General Brooke Rynd Chambers, a Mutiny veteran, died in London in his 81st year.

27. Mrs. A. B. Nicholls died at Banagher, King's County. She was the second wife of the curate who married Charlotte Brontë. She learned from her husband all the traditions of the Brontë family, and just before she died she was taking a great interest and pleasure in the new edition of Acton, Currer, and Ellis Bell's poems, which Mr. Arthur Benson was editing.

— **Charles Grey Grey**, Fellow of the Surveyors' Institute, died in Dublin

in his 90th year. He was educated at Durham University. He studied engineering and was surveyor for the Commissioners of the Greenwich Hospital Estates. In 1849 he went to Sweden to study forestry. He afterwards managed several large estates which covered the greater part of Counties Limerick and Tipperary. In 1863 he was appointed receiver for the northern estates of Greenwich Hospital, and in 1874 he retired on a pension. For a number of years he interested himself in the Irish Forestry Society and in agricultural matters.

28. Miss Ritso died at Bath at the age of 103 years. Her grandfather and George III. were playmates as children.

MARCH.

1. The Rev. Dr. Edward Atkinson, Master of Clare College, Cambridge, since 1856, died after a short illness at the age of 96 years. He received his early education at the Grammar School, Leeds, and went to Clare in 1838. He was elected Fellow of his College immediately after he had attained the third place in the Classical Tripos examination, and shortly afterwards he became Classical Lecturer and tutor. He showed marked business ability which was of great value to his college, and he was chosen Vice-Chancellor five times in sixteen years. Besides being a classical scholar he was an excellent German scholar and also knew Dutch, Italian and Anglo-Saxon. Dr. Atkinson left no memoirs. To the end of his life he took a great interest in the Universities Mission to Central Africa and in the College Mission in South London.

— **Professor James Geikie**, for many years Dean of the Faculty of Science in Edinburgh, died in his 76th year. In 1861 he entered the Geological Survey of Scotland, and with his brother, Sir Archibald Geikie, who afterwards became director, was a pioneer in first hand geological investigation. In 1882 he succeeded his brother to the Murchison Professorship of Geology and Mineralogy which was founded in 1871. Eight years before he published "The Great Ice Age," which made him at once an acknowledged authority on glacial geology. Other works which he published were, in 1898, "Earth Sculpture"; in 1905, "Structural and Field Geology." He was one of the founders of the Royal Scottish Geographical Society, and for six years he was president.

1. Frank T. Bullen, the novelist, died at Madeira at the age of 57 years. His sea-stories were in great demand and his notes on the "Cruise of the *Cachalot*" instantly made his name. He did not go to school after he was 9 years of age, and in 1869 he went to sea, serving before the mast. He rose, however, to be successively second mate and chief mate.

2. Captain Arthur Edward Harrington Raikes died at the age of 47 years. He was late of the Wiltshire Regiment, and served in the East Africa rebellion of 1895-96 and was mentioned in despatches, and received the Sultan of Zanzibar's medal and decorations.

4. William Willett, head of the well-known firm of builders, died in Chislehurst at the age of 58 years. He was well known as a builder of beautiful houses, and his abilities as a builder and designer made his houses much sought after, particularly in the Kensington and South Hampstead districts. He will be remembered as the promoter of the Daylight Saving Bill, for which he found a great number of supporters.

6. Lord Cadogan died in London in his 75th year. In 1873 he entered the House of Commons as member for Bath. He succeeded to the title in the same year and served as Under-Secretary for War from 1875 to 1878 and as Under-Secretary for the Colonies from 1878 to 1880. He was Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland from 1895 to 1902. The time was a difficult one, there was great political unrest and agrarian agitation; but in spite of these many difficulties his personal popularity remained unshaken.

His Viceroyalty will be chiefly remembered for its social distinction and for the interest which was taken in the industrial and charitable life of the country. Lord Cadogan was one of the greatest ground landlords in London and was a successful farmer and stockbreeder. He succeeded in the earldom by his third son.

6. **Sir Bruce Maxwell Seton** died suddenly whilst walking in Albemarle Street. He was descended from the ancient family of Setons of Abercorn. The baronetcy was created in 1663, and Sir Bruce was the only child of the seventh baronet. He was for many years clerk in the War Office. He was private secretary successively to the Earl of Ripon, Mr. J. G. Baring, Earl de Grey, the Marquess of Hartington, the Duke of Marlborough, the Marquess of Ripon, Lord Aberdare, the Earl of Morley, Mr. Childers and Lord Sandhurst. In 1869 he succeeded his father in the title.

— **Pierre Fortuné Jaume**, the famous French detective, died at the age of 69. He had a European reputation for his skill in solving sensational crimes. His disguises were remarkable for their ingenuity.

— **Mrs. Birrell**, the wife of the Chief Secretary for Ireland, died at her house in Chelsea. She was the daughter of Mr. Frederick Locker-Lampson. In her girlhood she met many famous people. She married in 1878 the second son of Lord Tennyson, who died in 1886. Two years later she became the second wife of Mr. Augustine Birrell. This marriage proved to be an ideal one, and in her husband's political career she took the greatest interest. Her charm and sympathy won her friends wherever she went and her delightful humour was always a pleasure to listen to.

— **Lieutenant - General James Francis Tennant, R.E., C.I.E., F.R.S., F.R.A.S.**, died in his 87th year. He was educated at Addiscombe, and was afterwards gazetted to the Bengal Engineers. After working as an assistant engineer of the Ganges Canal, he was transferred to the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India. He served for some time as Government Astronomer of Madras, and was appointed to observe eclipses of the sun in 1867-8 and in 1871.

— **The Right Rev. William Moore Richardson**, formerly Bishop of Zanzibar, died at Cambridge in his 71st year. He was ordained in 1869 and was Vicar

of Wolvercote, Oxford, from 1883 to 1889, when he went to Ponteland, Northumberland. He was greatly interested in foreign mission work and in 1895 he was chosen Bishop of Zanzibar; his health, however, broke down, and after five years' labour he was compelled to return. He was Warden of St. Thomas's Sisterhood from 1902 to 1910.

6. **Rev. Robert Bruce**, Rector of Littledean, Gloucester, since 1908. He spent thirty-five years as a missionary, the first ten in the Punjab and the remainder in Persia. In 1898 he was appointed Honorary Canon of Durham and both Oxford and Dublin conferred on him the honorary degree of D.D.

7. **Colonel Henry Mills Skrine**, died suddenly in Devonshire in his 71st year. He was called to the Bar by the Inner Temple and was formerly hon.-Colonel to the 1st V.B. Somerset Light Infantry.

11. **Thomas Alexander Browne** (Rolf Boldrewood) died in Melbourne at the age of 89 years. He was well known as a writer of romances of Australian history, and his best known book, "Robbery Under Arms," was published in 1888.

— **Rev. Thomas Skelton, B.D.**, Prebendary of Lincoln Cathedral, died in his 81st year. In 1857 he was ordained and in the following year he went out to the Delhi Mission to restore it, after the massacre of the S.P.G. missionaries at Delhi during the Indian Mutiny. After thirteen years he returned to England.

12. **Sir George Turner, M.B., M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P.**, died in Devon at the age of 79. He had lived in retirement for the past three years. Sir George entered the Civil Service of Cape Colony as Medical Officer of Health in 1895. In the following year rinderpest broke out. Dr. Koch was then at work to discover a cure, but he was recalled before his work was complete, and Dr. Turner was appointed to succeed him; he finished the inoculation work and produced a curative and preventive serum. This only gave immunity for three weeks; he then renewed his researches and tried the simultaneous inoculation of virus and serum. Rinderpest was stamped out in Cape Colony within a year of this discovery. The ambition of his life had been to find some remedy for the disease of leprosy. He worked untiringly amongst the lepers at Pretoria, and they were passion-

ately devoted to him. After he retired he devoted all his time to the study of the bacteriological side of leprosy. After several years' work he suddenly noticed certain marks on his hand and he recognised them as the unmistakable beginnings of the disease which he had set himself to cure.

12. **Mrs. John D. Rockefeller**, wife of the head of the Standard Oil Companies, died in New York. She was married in 1864, and the Standard Oil Works were built the year after.

— **Dr. William Murray Dobie, F.R.A.S.**, died at the age of 86 years. He was associated with Charles Kingsley in founding the Chester Society of Natural Science. He attended the late Mr. W. E. Gladstone in his last illness.

— **Count Witte**, who is described as a maker of Modern Russia, died of meningitis at the age of 66 years. On completing his University course he entered the service of the South-Western Railway. In 1888 he was appointed director of the railway department in the Ministry of Finance, which proved a stepping-stone to the post of Minister of Ways of Communication. M. Witte was a great financier and he developed Russian industry to immense proportions, and in less than ten years he nearly doubled the existing railway system. His financial exploits were organised on a tremendous scale and from many quarters he was regarded as the greatest financier of his time; but from a political point of view his policy was not altogether approved, and these objections were strongly taken up by M. Plehve, the Minister of the Interior. Gradually M. Witte's popularity began to waver, and in 1903 he was relieved of his office of Minister of Finance. In 1906 he was made Prime Minister, but he did not prove himself a great statesman and in 1906 he was succeeded by M. Goremykin. He never recovered the confidence of the Emperor and he remained out of favour till the end.

14. **Walter Crane, R.W.S.**, the artist and writer, died in his 70th year. He first exhibited at the Royal Academy at the age of 16, and the year following he produced his first illustrated book, "The New Forest." For fifty years he published books, one of the most charming being "The Baby's Opera" for children, and one of his latest "William Morris and Whistler," which came out in 1911. Of his pictures "The Renaissance of Venus" is in the Tate Gallery and a portrait of himself was sent to the

Uffizi Gallery, Florence, in 1912. He will be remembered mostly, however, as the founder and president of the Arts and Crafts Exhibitions, which he started in 1888.

18. **Charles Edmond Akers**, died in his 54th year. He served with the Canadian Contingent in the Gordon relief expedition of 1884-5. In 1888 he became Commissioner for Native Affairs on the Gold Coast. The following year he joined the staff of the *Standard* and afterwards *The Times*, for which he acted as special correspondent for North and South America in 1893-1903, and afterwards as war correspondent in the Brazilian and Spanish-America Campaigns.

— **Sir John Edward Bingham**, head of the firm of Walker & Hall, Sheffield, the pioneers of the electroplate industry, died at the age of 76. He was twelve years vice-chairman of the National Fair Trade League. He took a prominent part in local affairs and granted his workpeople old-age pensions, free from any contribution from them. He was created a baronet in 1903.

— **Rev. Francis Gerald Vesey, LL.D.**, died at the age of 82 years. He resigned from the office of Archdeacon of Huntingdon quite a short time before, having held it for forty-one years.

— **Colonel Robertson**, of the Indian Army, died in his 51st year. After serving for four years as private secretary to the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab he became deputy secretary to the Government of India in the Military Department. Colonel Robertson was a younger brother of the Bishop of Exeter.

19. **Robert Charles de Grey Oyner** died in London in his 73rd year. He was educated at Eton and served for some years in the Grenadier Guards. He occupied a very important position on the Turf.

— **Lord Teignmouth** died at Oxford in his 75th year. He served at one time in the Scots Guards.

— **Cardinal Antonio Agliardi**, Vice-Chancellor of the Holy See, and one of the most prominent members of the Sacred College, died in Rome in his 83rd year. After he had taken orders he acted for twelve years as parish priest and afterwards went to Canada as a bishop's chaplain. In 1892 he was ap-

pointed to Vienna, but in 1896 he was recalled, owing to having encouraged the resistance of the Hungarian Clericals to the civil marriage and divorce laws adopted by the Hungarian Chamber.

19. **Dr. William Smart**, Professor of Political Economy at Glasgow University, died in his 62nd year after a short illness. After graduating he spent a number of years in business as a manufacturer. He retired from business in 1884 and in 1886 he became Lecturer on Economics at University College, Dundee, and Queen Margaret College, Glasgow. He wrote many works on economics. He was one of the founders of the Glasgow Toynbee Hall and he served on the Glasgow Municipal Housing Commission.

20. **Arthur Ryle**, the third son of the late Bishop of Liverpool and brother of the Dean of Westminster, died suddenly in Felixstowe at the age of 57 years. He was educated at Eton and Oxford, and later on took to landscape painting. He lived a great part of the year in his home in Scotland, and his pictures show the love he had for Scotch scenery. He was greatly loved by a large circle of friends and much of his time was spent in looking after the personal welfare of those less fortunate than himself. It was in this way that he died, doing his utmost to bring cheer and kindly help to the soldiers at Felixstowe. Mr. Ryle was one of the best-known members of the Savile Club.

— **Professor T. L. Bullock** died suddenly in Oxford at the age of 70 years. In 1869 he entered the British Consular Service in China and resigned in 1897. Two years later he was appointed to the Professorship of Chinese at Oxford.

21. **John Young Sargent**, the great classical teacher, died at Oxford in his 86th year. He obtained a fellowship at Magdalen in 1863. He did not retain the fellowship long, as he married in 1865; but his wife died in 1871 and he was again elected Fellow. He left Magdalen at the end of 1877. He wrote numerous works and his most important were educational ones. He is best known by his work "Materials and Models for Latin and Greek Prose Composition."

— **George H. Jessop**, author and playwright. His most familiar stories are "Desmond O'Connor," "His American Wife," and "Where the Shamrock Grows." Mr. Jessop was a well-known member of the Savage Club.

21. **Charles Francis Adams**, the notable historian, died in Washington. His father was American Minister in London at the time of the Civil War.

— **James Eglinton Anderson Gwynne, F.S.A., F.R.G.S., F.S.S., M. Inst. C.E.**, was formerly head of the engineering firm of Gwynne & Co. of Hammersmith.

22. **Charles Hermans Goschen**, senior partner of Messrs. Fröhling & Goschen, foreign bankers, died in his 76th year. He was the brother of Lord Goschen and of Sir W. E. Goschen who was British Ambassador in Berlin until 1914.

— **Colonel James Colquhoun Revell Reade** died suddenly in the Army and Navy Stores in his 75th year. He was educated at Christ Church and was called to the Bar by the Middle Temple. He served in the 14th Hussars and Suffolk Yeomanry and was lieutenant-colonel commanding the 3rd Welsh Regiment from 1886 to 1896.

— **Hubert James Austin**, principal of the firm of Messrs. Austin & Paley, architects, died in his 74th year.

23. **Major-General George Ricketts Roberts**, half-brother of the late Lord Roberts, died in Surrey in his 88th year. He entered the Army in 1844 and served with the 41st Bengal Native Infantry at Moodkee, Fevozeshah and Aliwal. General Roberts retired from the Army in 1880.

— **Colonel Farquhar, D.S.O.**, Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry, was killed in action at the age of 40 years. He obtained his first appointment in the Coldstream Guards in 1896, being promoted captain in 1901 and major in 1910. He saw active service in the South African War and received the Queen's medal with five clasps and the D.S.O. In 1913 he was appointed Military Secretary to the Duke of Connaught.

— **Sir Arthur Bignold**, a former member for Wick Burghs, died in his 76th year. He was elected to the House of Commons as a Unionist for Wick Burghs in 1900 and held the seat until 1910. He was knighted in 1904.

— **Dr. S. G. Rawson**, Principal of the Battersea Polytechnic, died after a short illness.

23. Colonel Harry Shuldham-Leigh, M.V.O., died in his 61st year. He joined the old 18th Royal Irish in 1874, and retired from the command of the 2nd Battalion in 1905.

24. John Wilson died at Durham at the age of 78 years. He sat in the House of Commons as Labour member for twenty-five years. He was one of the most remarkable men sent to Parliament as representative of Labour. He was the son of a labourer and went to the quarries at the age of 10. From the quarry he went to the pit where he remained until he was 19. Afterwards he emigrated and was three years in the mines of Pennsylvania and Illinois. He visited the United States again in 1897 with Lord Playfair and Mr. Cremer to place before President Cleveland the views of the English trade unions on international arbitration. He was instrumental in building up one of the strongest of English trade unions—the Durham Miners' Association—which was started in 1859.

— **Lady Huggins**, widow and assistant of the celebrated astronomer, died after a long illness in her 67th year. She married Sir William Huggins in 1875, and from that time she helped her husband in his investigations into the chemistry and physics of the heavenly bodies, and the papers and memoirs which were compiled after that date from the *Tulse-Hill Observatory* bore their joint names. Soon after her marriage her husband began to make use of the photographic plate, and Lady Huggins's assistance in this was invaluable. They wrote numerous papers which were communicated chiefly to the Royal Society; and they issued two beautiful volumes as the "*Publications of the Tulse-Hill Observatory*." Both of these are decorated by designs of Lady Huggins, and from the artistic as well as the scientific point of view they are perfect. In 1903 Lady Huggins was elected an honorary member of the Royal Astronomical Society.

25. Mrs. Bernard Beere (Mrs. Olivier), the actress, died in London in her 59th year. She was a pupil of Mr. Hermann Vezin, and made her first appearance at the Opera Comique in 1877. In 1888 she became a member of the Bancroft company at the Haymarket, a great ambition in those days. She twice played parts made famous by Madame Bernhardt, the title rôle in "*Fédora*" and the heroine of "*La Tosca*." She achieved marked success in each. Early in the nineties Mrs. Beere took a long tour in

America and Australia, and her appearances in London were few from that date, owing to her failing health.

25. Viscount Sidmouth died at his Devonshire seat in his 86th year. He was educated at Rugby and Oxford, and at one time held a commission in the Devon Yeomanry. He was the fourth holder of the title and was in direct descent from the first peer, Henry Addington.

— **Professor Henry Robinson**, who occupied the Chair of Civil Engineering at King's College from 1880 to 1902, died at the age of 78 years. He contributed largely to engineering literature.

29. Mrs. Borden, mother of the Premier, Sir Robert Borden, died at Grand Pré, Nova Scotia. She was 90 years old.

— **Bernard Roth**, formerly a well-known Harley Street specialist, and son-in-law of John Bright, died in his 63rd year.

30. Sir John Cameron Lamb, formerly Second Secretary of the Post Office, died at his residence in Hampstead. He entered the Post Office in 1864 and took a prominent part in the organisation of the acquired telegraph systems to meet the growing demand of the public. He also took an important part in the arrangement of matters concerning the international telegraph system. He took part in three international telegraph conferences, in 1890 in Paris, at Budapest in 1896, and in London in 1903. Mr. Lamb also took an active part in organising a State system of the telephone service.

— **Lady St. Davids**, who was well known for her philanthropic work, died in a nursing home after an operation. She was the founder of the Women's Institute in Victoria Street. She took an intense interest in all Welsh national movements, although she was not Welsh by birth. She was an excellent public speaker and reciter and gave several recitals throughout Wales.

— **The Hon. Laurance Brodrick** died in London in his 51st year. He was a J.P. for Denbighshire, and took a leading part in North Wales in the struggle for the maintenance of the Welsh Church.

— **John Harvey Finlayson** died after a long illness at Adelaide, South

Australia, in his 72nd year. He was one of the proprietors of the *Adelaide Register* and had been editor for many years.

31. **Lord Rothschild** died in London after a serious operation in his 75th year. He was the eldest son of Baron Lionel de Rothschild, who was the first Jew to take the oath and his seat in the House of Commons. Lord Rothschild had not the financial abilities of his father, but when at the age of 40 years he became chief of the London house of Rothschild he was eminently fitted for such a position. He was a member of the House of Commons from 1865 until 1885, and his advice during this time on financial matters was invaluable to the House. The House of Rothschild has always been a great support to British finance; the most remarkable achievement being the arrangement by this firm of the purchase by the British Government in 1875 of shares which involved the expenditure of a sum of 3,976,532*l.*, and this was achieved with astonishing smoothness. In politics he

was a constitutional Liberal, but he was consulted by Ministers of all parties and was always ready to give his services and advice. Although he was a keen business man, he was fond of country life. He was a breeder of prize cattle and sheep and a grower of choice flowers and fruit. Lord Rothschild was of a most generous disposition and his works of charity were enormous. He was the leader in all great public charitable movements and much of the success of these movements could be attributed to him. He was a man of simple tastes and his friends could be found in all classes of society.

31. **Edward Peacock**, the antiquary, died in his 84th year after a long illness. In early life he showed a special taste for history and archaeology and he was elected a Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries in 1857. He contributed papers on historical and antiquarian subjects to various periodicals. He was a reviewer for the *Athenæum* for over forty years and the author of many books on antiquarian subjects.

APRIL.

1. **Mrs. Temple**, widow of the late Archbishop Temple, died at her son's house in Piccadilly. She was married to Dr. Temple when he was Bishop of Exeter in 1876. Her influence in Exeter was soon felt. In 1885 Dr. Temple was translated to the See of London and to the Palace of Fulham, and here again Mrs. Temple's influence and success as a hostess were invaluable to the Bishop. She was described as a perfect wife and mother, and once the Bishop said, when speaking on her behalf, "I think her the one woman in the world."

— **Earl Mount Cashell** died at his residence in Somerset in his 86th year. He was educated at Eton and St. John's College, Cambridge, and was called to the Bar by Lincoln's Inn in 1854.

2. **Mrs. Elizabeth Marie R. Forster** died suddenly of heart failure in her drawing-room. She inherited a large sum of money from the late Mr. Benson, who had adopted her, and she used much of it for philanthropic and religious purposes.

3. **Walter Baring**, brother of the Earl of Cromer, died in his 71st year. He passed his life in the Diplomatic Service and was British Minister at Uruguay when he retired.

3. **Andrew Ernest Stoddart** committed suicide by shooting himself with a revolver at his residence in St. John's Wood in his 52nd year. He will always be remembered as one of the greatest players of cricket and Rugby football. It was as a batsman that he was most famous. He paid four visits to Australia—in 1887, 1891, 1894 and 1897. He was a great example of a born player of games, he did not believe in coaching and never had a coach himself. He had been in financial difficulties owing to the war, which had preyed on his mind.

4. **George Bryon Cooke-Yarborough**, Chairman of the West Riding Quarter Sessions, died in his 72nd year. He had been magistrate since 1870 and for many years he was Chairman of the Doncaster County Bench. He was at one time a lieutenant in the 14th Hussars.

— **Dr. Henry Lewis Jones**, consulting medical officer to the electrical department at St. Bartholomew's Hospital, died in his 58th year.

— **Surgeon-Colonel Charles Peter Costello, F.R.C.S.E., I.M.S.**, died from heart failure following bronchitis in his 80th year. In 1859 he went to India as Assistant Surgeon and held medical charge of different regiments of

the Punjab Frontier Force. From 1889 to 1893 he was Principal Medical Officer and Sanitary Commissioner in Assam.

5. **Thomas Williams**, a son of a farmer, died at the age of 103 years in Monmouthshire.

7. **Colonel William Campbell Hyslop, C.B.**, the secretary of the City of London Territorial Force Association, died from heart failure following an accident in which he was injured a few days before. He was in his 55th year. For his services in connexion with the National Reserve he was appointed a Companion of the Order of the Bath (Civil Division) in 1913.

— **Major-General Clement J. Griffiths**, Colonel-in-Chief of the 53rd Sikhs, died in his 77th year. He took part in the relief of Kandahar and was mentioned in despatches three times, receiving the medal with two clasps, bronze star, and his brevet of lieutenant-colonel.

— **Frederic James Harrison**, a member of the firm of J. & J. Harrison, the Liverpool shipowners, died at the age of 61 years.

— **John Cuthies Hill**, formerly a well-known builder and brick merchant in Northern London. In 1881 he started business as a speculative builder, and in 1910 he was adjudicated bankrupt, his gross liabilities being estimated at over 1,000,000.

— **Major Samuel Flood-Page** died in his 82nd year. In 1855 he was gazetted to the 2nd Madras Light Infantry. He took a very active part in the volunteer movement. He also took a keen interest in electricity and wireless telegraphy. In 1883 he was appointed secretary and manager of the Edison & Swan United Electric Lighting Company. In 1892 he became a director. In 1899 he became managing director of Marconi's Wireless Company.

8. **Sir Frederick Edward Shafto Adair**, fourth baronet, died in his 55th year. He was a keen sportsman and traveller and was a painter in water-colours.

— **Professor Friedrich Loeffler**, the discoverer of the diphtheria bacillus, died in Berlin. He ranks with Koch and Ehrlich as a pioneer in the realm of bacteriological medicine. He devoted himself at an early age to investigations into the causes of the so-called parasitic

diseases, and in 1884 published a description of the bacillus of diphtheria, and it is on this work of Dr. Loeffler that the diphtheria anti-toxin treatment has been so widely used and with such remarkable success.

8. **Right Rev. Edward Ash Were, D.D.**, Bishop Suffragan of Stafford, died in Lichfield in his 69th year. Immediately after taking his degree at New College, Oxford, he accepted an assistant mastership at Winchester. He was ordained subsequently, and continued his teaching until 1880 when he was appointed to the Wiltshire parish of North Bradley. Afterwards he served successively as Bishop's chaplain, Vicar of St. Werburgh's, Derby, and Bishop Suffragan and Archdeacon of Derby. In 1900 he resigned his benefice and in 1909 he was made Bishop Suffragan of Stafford.

9. **Bishop James Moorhouse** died near Taunton in his 89th year. In 1853 he graduated at St. John's College, Cambridge, in the Mathematical Tripos. When he left Cambridge he was at once ordained by the Bishop of Ely. In 1859 he accepted a curacy in the parish of Hornsey. He was considered an eloquent and influential preacher and in 1874 he accepted the Warburtonian lectureship. In the same year Mr. Moorhouse became Chaplain in Ordinary to Queen Victoria, and Prebendary of Caddington Major in St. Paul's Cathedral. In 1876 he succeeded Bishop Perry in Australia as Bishop of Melbourne. After ten years Lord Salisbury recalled him to occupy the See of Manchester. Bishop Moorhouse had preached before Queen Victoria, who much appreciated him. He retired at the age of 77 years and lived quietly in his house at Taunton.

— **Andrew Walker**, first managing director of Bovril (Limited), died in his 77th year.

10. **William Grylls Adams, F.R.S., F.G.S.**, Emeritus Professor of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy in King's College, died in Somerset in his 79th year. He retired from the professorship at King's College in 1906. He wrote numerous articles on many scientific subjects.

— **Lieutenant-General Samuel Holt Loman, C.B.**, died in his 60th year. He entered the Army in 1874 and fought in the Kaffir and Zulu Campaigns of 1877-9. He was appointed General Officer Commanding the 1st Division in 1910.

11. **Dr. Louis Waldstein**, the pathologist, died in Surrey in his 62nd year. He was for some time a prominent physician in New York, but in 1899 he came to England and from that period he gave all his time to higher medical research.

— **Charles Martin**, the secretary of the Junior Carlton Club, died in his 68th year. He had been secretary of the club for over forty years. Mr. Martin was well known in Masonic circles.

— **Robert Black**, the author and translator, died within a few weeks of his 86th birthday. For many years Mr. Black had lived a life of complete seclusion in London. He was a former contributor to the *Athenæum* and *Field* and was the author of "Horse Racing in France."

— **F. Milton Fisk**, a prominent member of the American Colony, died in London in his 58th year. He was manager of the London branch of Parke, Davis & Co., manufacturing chemists of Detroit.

— **Surgeon-General Sir Gerald Bomford** died at St. Thomas's Home, London, at the age of 68 years. He entered the Indian Medical Service in 1874, and was appointed resident surgeon to the Medical College, Calcutta. In 1905 he was appointed Director-General of the Indian Medical Service and retired five years later. He wrote largely on scientific matters.

— **William Glynne Charles Gladstone, M.P.**, Royal Welsh Fusiliers, grandson of Mr. W. E. Gladstone, was killed in action in Flanders in his 30th year. He was educated at Eton and Oxford and in 1907 he was President of the Oxford Union. He was returned for the Kilmarnock Burghs in 1911 and he was much esteemed in the House. For a time Mr. Gladstone was Honorary Attaché to the British Embassy at Washington, and after his return he was appointed Lord Lieutenant of Flintshire. When war broke out he took a prominent part in promoting recruiting, and later he offered himself and received a commission as second lieutenant in the Welsh Fusiliers. He left for the front on March 15.

15. **Baroness de Reuter** died at Beigate. She married Baron de Reuter of Reuter's Agency in 1876.

16. **Sir Charles Seely** died suddenly from heart failure after an attack

of influenza in his 82nd year. He was a well-known coalowner in the Midlands and for many years Liberal member of Parliament for Lincoln. When Mr. Gladstone took up the cause of Home Rule he was one of the members who seceded, and he consequently lost his seat. In 1892 Sir Charles was again returned. He was a warm supporter of the Volunteer movement and for many years was Colonel of the Robin Hood Rifles. He was created a baronet in 1896. He was a generous philanthropist, and hospitals benefited very largely from his gifts.

16. **Dowager Countess de Morella**, widow of Don Ramon Cabrera, Field-Marshal of Spain, died at Virginia Water at the age of 94 years. She was the daughter and heir of Mr. Robert Vaughan Richards, Q.C.

17. **Nelson Wilmarth Aldrich**, formerly member of the United States Senate, died in his 74th year. Mr. Aldrich was appointed chairman of the National Monetary Commission on its organisation in 1908.

— **Henry Montagu Mathews, C.I.E., M.I.C.E.**, died at his residence in Surbiton Hill Park at the age of 88. He served for nearly thirty years in the Indian Public Works Department and about 1878 he became engineer-in-chief and manager of the Rangoon and Irawadi Valley State Railway.

— **Walter Agnew**, senior partner of the firm of Christie, Manson & Woods, died in his 54th year. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and was called to the Bar but never practised. He had an extensive knowledge of many branches of art and especially of engravings. He had much to do with building up the firm.

— **Dr. John Joseph Esmonde, M.P.**, died in co. Tipperary in his 53rd year. He practised as a doctor in England for many years. He was elected for North Tipperary in 1910.

— **Sir James Rankin**, first baronet, died in Herefordshire in his 73rd year. He sat in the House of Commons as a Conservative for Leominster from 1880 to 1885 and for North Herefordshire from 1886 to 1906 and 1910 to 1912. He took a great interest in education and national insurance and wrote many articles on social and scientific matters.

— **Philip Webb**, the architect, died at his residence in Sussex in his 84th

year. He was a great friend of William Morris whom he met while in the office of Mr. Street, where Morris was a pupil. They did much work together and the earliest is perhaps the decoration of the dining-room at South Kensington Museum, about 1867. One of his largest works was Clonds which was finished about 1886 and rebuilt after the fire in 1890. He also made many important additions to old houses, did much decorative work and made many designs for wallpapers, tapestries and tiles. He retired from business in 1900.

18. **Major Edwards Phillips**, late of the 8th Hussars, died in his 85th year. He was one of the last two surviving officers of the charge of the Six Hundred. In 1857 he went with his regiment to India and took part in the Mutiny, being mentioned in despatches. After retiring from the regular army in 1860 he acted as adjutant to the Ayrshire Yeomanry for several years.

— **Baron Herbert de Reuter**, managing director of Reuter's Telegram Company, was found dead at his residence in Reigate. He was greatly depressed at the death of his wife, which happened a few days before. He was in his 63rd year. He was educated at Harrow and Balliol College, Oxford; but he left Balliol before he had taken his degree in order to make a study of music in Paris. After a year or so, however, he returned to London and gave up the idea of taking up music as a profession and entered the service of Reuter's Agency. For many years he had lived the life of a recluse and was never seen in society. Besides his great love of music, he found an immense delight in books and his library was a very fine one.

— **The Rev. Ambrose Shepherd, D.D.**, died after an illness of several months in his 61st year. At the age of 10 he worked in a Rochdale mill and remained a millworker until he was 22, attending a night school that he might enter Rotherham Congregational College. He was appointed Minister in Leeds in 1880 and afterwards at St. Mary's, Morley, and Trinity, Reading. In 1898 he became Minister at Elgin Place Congregational Church, Glasgow, and was a very popular and vigorous preacher.

— **Sir Thomas Clouston, M.D.**, late physician superintendent of the Royal Edinburgh Asylum, Morningside, died within a few days of 75 years of

age. He studied medicine at Edinburgh University and graduated M.D. in 1861. Dr. Clouston was appointed to Morningside in 1873 and he remained there for over thirty-five years. He was Lecturer on Mental Diseases at Edinburgh University and wrote many works on his subject, the most important being "Clinical Lectures on Mental Diseases," "Neuroses of Development" and the "Hygiene of Mind." He was President of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh, in 1902-3 and was for some time Editor of the *Journal of Mental Science*. He was knighted in 1911.

18. **Frederick Augustus Buck** died at the age of 65. He had been a fine art dealer nearly all his life, and had wide knowledge of the works of the artists of the Barbizon school.

— **Richard Lydekker, F.R.S., F.G.S., F.Z.S.**, well known as a naturalist and geologist, died in his 66th year. He joined the staff of the Geological Survey of India in 1874. He wrote many valuable works. He catalogued in ten volumes the fossil mammals, reptiles and birds in the British Museum; he collaborated with the late Sir W. H. Fowler in "The Royal Natural History" (8 vols.) and with the late Professor H. A. Nicholson in "A Manual of Palaeontology" (2 vols.) and he contributed three numbers to Allen's Naturalists' Library and many articles to the "Encyclopædia Britannica." He also wrote "The Great and Small Game of India, Burma, and Tibet," "Phases of Animal Life" and "The Sportsman's British Birds."

— **Léon Henri Lefèvre**, one of the best known art dealers in London, died in Bournemouth at the age of 72. He was born in Paris and came to London to the firm of Messrs. Moore, McQueen & Co., art dealers, when quite young. He did one of the biggest trades in modern pictures of any dealer in his time.

19. **Henry Oliver Duncan Davidson** died suddenly at Nairn. Until two years previously he was senior master at Harrow and had been connected with the school for forty-six years, having entered as a boy in 1867. He afterwards became a scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge.

— **Baron de Rutzen** died at the age of 86 years. He was educated at Eton and Trinity College, Cambridge, and was called to the Bar at the Inner Temple in 1864. He was elder brother to the

late Sir Albert de Rutzen, Chief Metropolitan Police Magistrate.

19. **Mademoiselle Adèle Hugo**, the last of the children of Victor Hugo, died in her country house at Suresnes at the age of 85 years.

— **Antoine Florent Guilan**, Minister for the Colonies in the Dupuy Cabinet of 1898-9, died in Paris.

— **Mrs. J. Rennell Rodd**, widow of Major James Rennell Rodd, Royal Cornwall Rangers, died at St. Tudy, Cornwall. She was the mother of Sir James Rennell Rodd, British Ambassador in Rome.

— **Edmond Seligman**, the well-known French lawyer, died in France. Since the outbreak of war he had been acting as Public Prosecutor in the Third Court Martial.

20. **Sir William Patrick Manning** died at Sydney, N.S.W., on April 20, in his 70th year. For two years he represented South Sydney in the Legislative Assembly and was Mayor of Sydney for four years in succession. He was knighted in 1894.

23. **Rupert Brooke** died from the effects of sunstroke at Lemnos in his 28th year. He was educated at Rugby and played cricket and football for the school. In 1905 he won a prize for a poem on "The Bastille." In 1906 he went up to King's College, Cambridge, where he took the classical tripos and was elected to a fellowship in 1913. He wrote for the *Westminster Gazette*, describing travels which he took during 1913, and these written in the form of letters were filled with much humour and beauty. His poems have appeared in "Poetry and Drama" and in the four quarterly issues of *New Numbers* (1914). When war broke out he was given a commission as sub-lieutenant in the Hood Battalion of the Royal Naval Division, and on February 28 he sailed for the Dardanelles. He had a slight sunstroke in April, which ended in his death from blood-poisoning on board a French hospital ship.

— **Second Lieutenant Erasmus Darwin**, grandson of Charles Darwin, was killed in action in his 35th year. He was educated at Marlborough and Trinity College, Cambridge. He took the Mathematical Tripos in his second year and afterwards the Engineering Tripos. When war broke out he was occupying a very important position in the firm of Messrs. Bolckow, Vaughan

of Middlesbrough. He was gazetted second lieutenant in September, 1914.

25. **Second Lieutenant Gilchrist Stanley MacLagan**, 1st Battalion Royal Warwickshire Regiment, was killed in action near Ypres at the age of 35 years. He was one of the most famous coxswains of recent years. Mr. MacLagan was educated at Eton and Magdalen College, Oxford, and steered the University crew for four years, 1899 to 1902. He also steered the famous *Leander* eight which won at the Olympic Regatta at Henley in 1908, as well as the *Leander* crews at Henley Royal Regatta which won the Grand Challenge Cup in 1899, 1900, 1901, 1903, 1904 and 1905. In 1909 he became hon.-secretary to the Amateur Rowing Association. Mr. MacLagan was a member of the Stock Exchange and enlisted directly after the outbreak of war.

26. **Barnes Borron**, the well-known mineralogist, died in his 95th year.

— **John Durant**, the oldest National Reservist, died at the age of 100 years.

— **Rear-Admiral Walter John Grogan** was found drowned in Portsmouth Harbour. He was 56 years old. He rejoined the Navy from the retired list when war broke out and took command of a patrol yacht.

— **Rene de Saint-Marceaux**, the sculptor, died in Paris. Among his works are the tomb of Abbé Miroir and the statues of Alphonse Daudet and Alexandre Dumas fils.

— **Sandansky**, the notorious Macedonian revolutionary, was killed near the town of Nevrokop. He came into prominence some years previously by the kidnapping of the American missionary Miss Stone.

— **The Earl of Wilton** died at his residence in Lincolnshire in his 52nd year. He unsuccessfully contested the Gorton Division of Lancashire as a Conservative in 1886. He succeeded to the title in 1898.

— **John Bunny**, the comedian, died in New York at the age of 52 years. He was well known as a picture player and the films of a farcical nature in which he played the chief character always enjoyed a great popularity. Before he played for the picture theatres he was a comic opera singer and music-hall performer.

26. **Samuel Bewsher**, for many years Bursar at St. Paul's School, was the Founder of the preparatory school, Colet Court, Hammersmith. Born in 1852, he came to London in 1876 with Mr. F. W. Walker who had been appointed High Master of St. Paul's School. Eight years afterwards the school was removed from the city to its present home in the west of London, and Mr. Walker saw a great opportunity for a preparatory school in the neighbourhood. In 1891 Mr. Bewsher began the venture with three or four pupils. This proved a great success until in 1910 there must have been between 400 and 500 boys at the school, with a staff of 30 masters. During the latter part of his life Mr. Bewsher did much useful work on the Borough Council of Hammersmith, of which he was twice mayor.

27. **Lieutenant-General Granville George Chetwynd-Stapylton**, great-grandson of the fourth Viscount Chetwynd. He was born in 1823. He got his commission in the 13th Foot, now the Somerset Light Infantry, and served in the Afghan War of 1840-42. He retired in 1881.

— **Alexander Scriabin**, the eminent Russian composer, died suddenly from blood-poisoning at Moscow. Born in 1871 (old style) he had a thorough musical education under Taneiev and Safonoff, the famous conductor. In 1891 he toured through Europe as a pianist and afterwards he became a teacher in Moscow; but in 1903 he gave up teaching in order to devote his life to composition. His earliest piano works were strongly influenced by Chopin, but his later works show the individuality of a strong personality. His greatest work "Prometheus—The Poem of Fire," and others, "The Divine Poem" and "The Poem of Extasy," all show his startling powers as a composer.

29. **Miss Evelyn d'Alroy** (Mrs. Malcolm Watson), the actress, died after a short illness, following an operation. She made her first appearance in London less than ten years before her death, when she was understudy to Miss Lena

Ashwell in the Shulamite. With Sir Herbert Tree she played in Shakespearean plays, taking the parts of Ophelia, Portia and Oberon. She was on tour with Mr. Lewis Waller when she was taken ill.

29. **Neil Forsyth**, general manager of the Covent Garden Opera, was drowned whilst salmon fishing in the Spey. He was born in 1866, the son of Mr. Walter Forsyth of Kinross. He was a member of the Royal Victorian Order, and had also received French, Spanish, Danish and Saxe-Coburg decorations.

— **The Ven. John Tetley Rowe**, Archdeacon and Canon Residentiary of Rochester, died suddenly while hurrying to catch a train at Victoria Station.

— **Lieutenant-Colonel Charles Hotham Montague Doughty-Wylie, C.B., C.M.G.**, was killed during the operations in the Dardanelles at the age of 47 years. He entered Sandhurst in 1888 and on passing out he received his commission in the Royal Welsh Fusiliers. His first war service was in the Black Mountain Expedition of 1891. In 1895 he was transport officer on the staff of General Gatacre and served through the Chitral Campaign. He spent two years in Malta and Crete and served in Egypt during 1898 and 1899. In 1900 Captain Doughty commanded a battalion of mounted infantry in the Orange River Colony. He was severely wounded. In 1904 he married the daughter of Mr. John Wylie of Westcliff Hall and afterwards added the name Wylie to his surname. In 1906 he was appointed Military Consul at Konia, Asia Minor. In 1909 he became British Consul at Adis Ababa, Abyssinia. In all his undertakings he rendered important services. He received several military honours and for his services as Director-in-Chief of the Red Cross Units working in Turkey during the Balkan War he received from the Sultan the Second Class of the Order of the Medjidieh. Colonel Doughty-Wylie was serving on the staff of General Sir Ian Hamilton when he was killed.

MAY.

2. **Lord Justice Moriarty** died after an operation at a nursing home in Birmingham. He was 60 years of age. He was educated at Stonyhurst and Dublin University and was called to the Irish Bar in 1877. It was during the South African War that he became known as a lawyer with marked ability.

A famous case with regard to the remounts for the Army brought him into notice, and he soon became one of the acknowledged leaders of the Nisi Prius Bar. He took silk in 1904, became a Bencher of the King's Inns in 1908. In 1913 he was appointed Solicitor-General for Ireland and later became Attorney-

General. In 1914 he was appointed a Lord Justice of Appeal.

3. **Professor Heinrichius**, the holder of the Chair of Medicine in the University of Helsingfors, died at the age of 62 years.

4. **Sir William Gowers**, the eminent neurologist, died in London at the age of 70 years. He was educated at Christ Church School, Oxford, and at University College Hospital, London. He graduated M.B. in 1869 and M.D. in 1870. In 1879 he was appointed Gullstonian Lecturer and took as his subject "Epilepsy." His lecture on "The Diagnosis of Diseases of the Spinal Cord" laid the foundation of the wonderful knowledge which is possessed of the organic diseases of the spinal cord. His greatest work was the "Manual of Diseases of the Nervous System." The first volume was published in 1886 and the second in 1888, and after the publication of these volumes he was at once recognised as one of the leading neurologists. Mr. Gowers' teaching power was remarkable. He had a sound judgment and exceptional powers of observation. He was knighted in 1897. He was an hon. M.D. of Dublin, hon. LL.D. of Edinburgh, a Fellow of the Royal Society and of the College of Physicians.

— **Captain E. H. Halls** died at Littlehampton, aged 84. He served in the expedition which brought news of the completion of the North-West passage.

7. **Charles Frohman**, the theatrical manager, was drowned with the *Lusitania*. He was born in Ohio in 1860. He was at first employed as a clerk in the offices of New York newspapers and then he became box-office clerk at a theatre in Brooklyn. From these small beginnings he became a lessee of two London theatres and owned the biggest theatrical business in America that was ever known. It was in 1897 that he leased the Duke of York's Theatre and produced many very successful plays there, the most notable of which were Sir J. M. Barrie's "The Admirable Crichton," "What Every Woman Knows," and "Peter Pan." In 1910 he tried the repertory system, the authors being Sir J. M. Barrie, Mr. Bernard Shaw, Mr. John Galsworthy, and Mr. Granville Barker; the season opened in February and lasted until the summer, but the experiment was not tried again. Mr. Frohman was a clever manager and knew well what the public wanted,

7. **Lieutenant-General William Henry Beaumont de Horsey**, who rode in the charge of the Light Brigade at Balaklava, died at Costebelle at the age of 89 years. He entered the Army in 1844 and served with the Grenadier Guards during the Crimea.

— **Father Basil William Maturin** was drowned with the *Lusitania* on his return from a preaching mission which he had undertaken in the United States. He was 60 years of age, the son of an Irish vicar, and was educated at Trinity College, Dublin. In 1897 he was received into the Roman Catholic Church and a year later was ordained by Cardinal Vaughan.

9. **Major-General Henry Richard Abadie, C.B.**, died in London at the age of 74. He obtained his first commission as cornet of the 14th Light Dragoons and soon after was exchanged into the 17th Lancers. He served in the Abyssinian Expedition of 1867-8. At the beginning of the Afghan War of 1878-80 he was chosen for the Staff. He had changed his regiment in 1873 to the 9th Lancers and he took part in 1880 in the memorable march to Kandahar. He was made a C.B. in 1891 and selected for a reward for meritorious service in 1900. General Abadie was twice married.

— **Mr. William Jones, M.P.** for North Camarvonshire, died at the age of 55 years. He was elected as Liberal member for North Camarvonshire in 1895, and was appointed a Junior Lord of the Treasury and a Liberal Whip in 1911. He was a good speaker and was very popular on both sides of the House.

— **Major-General William Bally** died at Bath, aged 78. He entered the Army in 1855, joining the 32nd regiment, but exchanged soon afterwards into the 33rd (Duke of Wellington's). He served in the Crimea and in the Abyssinian Expedition of 1867-8 as aide-de-camp to Brigadier-General Collings. He retired from the Army in 1887.

— **Edward Mason**, third Battalion Northamptonshire Regiment, was killed in action in his 37th year. He was assistant music master at Eton for about fifteen years before the outbreak of the war, and was perhaps the first London musician to fall in the war.

10. **The Countess of Londoun**, third daughter of the first Lord Howard of Glossop, died at Londoun Castle, Ayrshire,

10. **Colonel Dugald McTavish Lumsden, C.B.**, died in London, aged 64. He will always be remembered for the part he took in the South African War. When that war broke out he raised and commanded in South Africa the corps of Anglo-Indian mounted infantry which bore his name. This gallant band marched fully 1,500 miles, was in twenty-nine actions, and was with Lord Roberts in his entry into Pretoria. During the last few months of his life he worked very hard to recruit special corps in the West-End, but his failing health prevented him from taking an active part on the Continent.

— **Lady Scarisbrick**, wife of Sir Charles Scarisbrick, died in Munich.

11. **Charles William Dowdeswell**, the art dealer, died at the age of 88. He began business in Chancery Lane sixty years previously, and among his early customers were John Ruskin and Burne-Jones. He was for many years an intimate friend of Whistler.

— **Prebendary Joseph John Glendinning Nash**, Rector of St. Alphage, London Wall, died in London after an operation. He was a scholar of Queen's College, Cambridge, and took his degree in 1868.

— **A. F. Wilding**, the lawn-tennis player, was killed in action. Born at Christchurch, New Zealand, in 1883; at the age of 16 he won his first lawn-tennis championship and shortly afterwards came to England and went to Trinity College, Cambridge. He there took seriously to lawn-tennis and in 1904 and 1906 represented his University. In 1905 he won the double championship at Wimbledon and also all the covered court championships at Queens'. In 1910 he won the singles championship and in that year was undefeated in England. He retained the championship until 1914 when he was defeated by Brookes. In September, 1914, he received a commission in the Royal Marines and was at Antwerp during part of the siege. He was promoted to Captain a few days before his death.

13. **Sir Ernest Augustus Northcote** died in London in his 65th year. He was educated at Westminster and Trinity, Cambridge, and was called to the Bar by the Middle Temple in 1875. He was Chief Justice of Trinidad from 1903 to 1908 and was knighted in 1905.

— **The Dowager Countess of Londesborough** died in London at the

age of 77 years. She was the youngest daughter of the seventh Duke of Beaufort and married the first Earl of Londesborough in 1863.

16. **Lieutenant-Colonel Lambert John Browne** died at the age of 64 years. He entered the Army in 1871. In 1875 he was appointed to the Bengal Staff Corps and retired as lieutenant-colonel in 1899. Colonel Browne served in the Afghan War and also took part in the Burma War, 1887-9.

— **Morgan William Crofton, D.Sc., F.R.S.**, died at Brighton in his 89th year. He graduated in 1848 at Trinity College, Dublin, with the highest mathematical honours. He was afterwards appointed to the mathematical staff of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, and on the retirement of Professor J. J. Sylvester became Professor of Mathematics there.

18. **Sir Edward Chandos Leigh**, formerly counsel to the Speaker, died in London in his 83rd year. He was educated at Harrow and Oxford; and was captain of the Eleven at Harrow. At Oxford he took his degree in Law and History Greats and was afterwards elected a Fellow of All Souls. He came to London in 1859, joining the Inner Temple. In two successive years 1880-1 he was made a Queen's Counsel and Recorder of Nottingham; and in 1888 became Speaker's counsel, holding this post until 1907. In 1887 he gained the double distinction of being elected a Bench of the Inner Temple and president of the M.C.C. in the club's centenary year. He received the K.C.B. in 1901. He married in 1871 the daughter of Mr. James Rigby of Moss House, Lancashire, by whom he had two sons and three daughters. Both sons have been killed in action, the elder, Major Chandos Leigh, D.S.O., in March, and the younger, Lieutenant Edward Henry Leigh, during the present month.

19. **George Frederick Pollock**, formerly Senior Master of the King's Bench, and King's Remembrancer, died at Hanworth aged 94 years. He was called to the Bar in 1843, when his father, the late Chief Baron, Sir Frederick Pollock, was Attorney-General. He was for nearly half a century a Master of the Exchequer Court and Supreme Court. Mr. Pollock interested himself in many branches of science and before he left the Bar was an authority as an arbitrator in patent cases. He also had done work as an

astronomer and amongst his friends were all the eminent scientific men of the day. He made a complete study and hobby of clocks and watches. He married in 1851 a daughter of the Rev. Henry Arthur Herbert, Rector of Rathdowney, in Queen's County.

20. Brigadier - General William Throsby Bridges, C.M.G., commanding the Australian contingent in the Dardanelles, died of wounds at the age of 54 years. General Bridges was born at Greenock and was educated at Trinity College School, Port Hope, Canada. He obtained his commission in the New South Wales Artillery in 1885. He served in the South African War 1899-1900. In 1902 he was appointed Acting Quartermaster-General on the Headquarters Staff of the Australian Military Forces, and in 1914 he became Inspector-General of the Commonwealth Military Forces.

— **Admiral von Essen**, Commander-in-Chief of the Russian Baltic Fleet, died in Revel from pneumonia. He was born in 1860 and commanded the Vladivostok Fleet in the Russo-Japanese War.

— **Sir George Farrar, D.S.O.**, was killed in a railway accident in German South-West Africa, where he was acting as Assistant Quartermaster-General to the South African forces under General McKenzie. He was born in 1859 and educated at Bedford Modern School and afterwards entered the engineering business of his uncle, Sir John Howard. The firm had branches in many parts of South Africa and at the age of 20 George Farrar went to Cape Colony. Later he went to Johannesburg and became one of the prominent leaders in the mining industry. When war broke out in South Africa he raised two regiments of South African Horse and served with great distinction as a Major on the staff of the Colonial Division. He was afterwards knighted in recognition of his services. When responsible Government was granted to the Transvaal, Sir George was elected leader of the Progressive party in the House of Assembly. He retired from politics, however, in 1911, owing to business demands. He received a baronetcy on the proclamation of Union in South Africa.

24. Captain Francis Grenfell, V.C., of the 9th Lancers, was killed in action at the age of 35 years. He was the first officer in the Army to receive the Victoria Cross in the present war. He was educated at Eton and was in the Eleven in his last year and was also

Master of the Beagles. On leaving Eton he received a commission in the 3rd Battalion Seaforth Highlanders (Militia), and in 1901 was gazetted second lieutenant in the King's Royal Rifle Corps. He served in the South African War. He joined the 9th Lancers in 1905 and was promoted captain in 1912. He was one of the best English polo players.

— **Engineer Rear-Admiral William Winsland Chilcott, C.B.**, died at Bad Nauheim in his 67th year. He was chief engineer of Sheerness Dockyard from 1890 to 1896, and Chief Inspector Mediterranean Fleet 1897 to 1902, and was promoted to Engineer Rear-Admiral in 1903, and retired in 1907. He was detained in Germany at the outbreak of the war and the German Government refused to release him on the ground that it was possible he would be able to perform military duties.

25. Adeline Louisa Maria, Countess of Cardigan and Comtesse de Lancastre, died at Deene Park, aged 90. She was a lady of strong personality and many accomplishments, the only daughter of Mr. Spencer de Horsey, M.P., and Lady Louisa Marie Judith, youngest daughter of the first Earl of Stradbroke. She was liberally educated, learning French, Italian, German, Spanish, and Latin and Greek. She had dancing lessons from Mlle. Duvernay, and could ride well, fence, and could accompany herself on the guitar with considerable ability. She married the Earl of Cardigan in 1858, but in 1868 he was killed by a fall from his horse. Lady Cardigan married again in 1873, the Count de Lancastre Saldanha, a Portuguese gentleman. He died in 1898, and from that time she led a retired life. In 1909 she published a volume of "Recollections" which caused her for the moment to be much talked about; the book was a collection of anecdotes about the people of social importance whom she had met in her early life. Some of these were very scandalous and not always true. It roused considerable anger from the relatives and descendants of some of the people spoken of. The book, however, had a large sale and went into numerous editions.

— **Dr. Hugo Müller**, the eminent chemist, was a Bavarian by birth and was educated as a chemist at Leipzig, at Göttingen, and at Munich under the great Liebig. In the fifties he came to this country as assistant to Dr. Warren de la Rue. In 1866 he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society.

He became treasurer of the Lawes Agricultural Trust Committee in 1889, but had recently retired, greatly against the wishes of his colleagues. Dr. Müller was naturalised thirty-seven years ago, when he married Miss Elizabeth Rusel Crosby. He became a partner in the firm of which Dr. de la Rue was a member, and rendered great service to them by his scientific knowledge and technical ability. He retired in 1902. He was also a noted horticulturist and botanist.

26. Captain the Hon. Julian Grenfell, D.S.O., son and heir of Lord Desborough, died in hospital in Boulogne. He was born in 1888, obtained his commission in the 1st (Royal) Dragoons in 1909, two years later became lieutenant, and was promoted temporary captain in November, 1914. He won the D.S.O. on November 17 and has been twice mentioned in despatches during the war. Captain Grenfell had made a special study of reconnaissance work and other branches of military science. On May 13 he was wounded in the head in the trenches in front of Ypres, and he never recovered.

— **Mrs. F. Locker - Lampson,** widow of Frederick Locker, the author of "London Lyrics," and only daughter of the late Sir Curtis Lampson, died in London. She wrote and published a number of religious books. Her two sons have both been Unionist members of Parliament since 1910.

28. Sir Charles Haukes Todd Crosthwaite, K.C.S.I., died at Long

Acre, Shamley Green, at the age of 80 years. He was educated at Merchant Taylors' School and St. John's, Oxford, and passed into the Indian Civil Service in 1857. He became Chief Commissioner of Burma, Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces, and later a member of the India Council. Sir Charles was twice married and is survived by two sons and three daughters.

31. Sir Arthur Herbert Church, Professor of Chemistry at the Royal Academy, died at Shelsley, Kew Gardens, at the age of 81 years. He was educated at King's College, the Royal College of Chemistry, and Lincoln College, Oxford, where he took a First Class at the Natural Science School. Sir Arthur was a leading authority in the chemistry of painting and gave valuable advice and help in the work of preserving the paintings in the Houses of Parliament. He published several books on agricultural chemistry and also wrote on earthenware and precious stones. He was elected Fellow of the Chemical Society in 1856, of the Royal Society in 1888, and was created K.C.V.O. in 1909.

— **Mrs. M. L. Herbert,** widow of the Rev. George W. Herbert, died at the age of 84 years. She was active in rescue and penitentiary work, and gave substantial help to the rebuilding of the Sisters' house at St. Alphege, Southwark, a parish which her husband founded and endowed. One of her daughters is the aviator and wife of Mr. Maurice Hewlett.

JUNE.

1. Claude Delaval Cobham, for many years Commissioner in Cyprus, died in Devonshire. He was educated at Rugby and University College, Oxford. He went to Larnaca in 1878, when the English occupied Cyprus, and was at once appointed Assistant Commissioner. In 1879 he became Commissioner of the District, which post he held until 1908. The natives of his district respected him highly and called him the Pasha. He published several books, dealing chiefly with the history of Cyprus, and he was also one of the compilers and editors of several editions of the "Handbook of Cyprus."

— **Sir Arthur Tredgold Lawson** died in London, aged 71. He was chairman of the firm of Fairbairn, Lawson & Co., engineers, and a director of the

Great Eastern Railway. He was created a baronet in 1900 and was a Chevalier of the Legion of Honour.

2. Sir Arthur Henderson Fairbairn, third baronet, died in Tunbridge Wells at the age of 63 years. He married but leaves no issue and is succeeded by his brother.

— **Barclay Gammon** died at the age of 48 years in London. He was well known as an entertainer at the piano.

— **Brigadier-General Mainwaring George Jacson** died at Gosport. He was born in 1859 and obtained his first commission in 1880. He saw active service in the Chitral in 1895 and with the Tirah Expeditionary Force two years later. For his services in the South

African War he received both medals with five clasps and the brevet of lieutenant-colonel.

4. **Camille Pelletau**, Senator for the Bouches-du-Rhône and sometime Minister of Marine, died in Paris from a heart attack.

— **The Rev. Sir James Stuart**, fourth baronet, died at his residence in Reading in his 78th year. He was educated at University College, Oxford. He was Vicar of Portishead, Somerset, from 1878 to 1902. He succeeded to the title in 1903.

5. **Canon Edmund Richard Dowdeswell**, lord of the manor and patron of Bushley, Worcestershire, died at the age of 70. He was Vicar of Bushley for seventeen years, but resigned a few years after he succeeded to the estates in 1893. He took a keen interest in archæology.

6. **The Rev. Horace William Barnes**, assistant master at Bedford Grammar School since 1886, died at the age of 53. He was educated at Queen's College, Oxford. Mr. Barnes had been a house master since 1902.

— **Dr. W. H. Cummings**, the musician, died at his residence in Dulwich in his 84th year. As a boy he was a chorister in the choir of St. Paul's Cathedral and afterwards in that of the Temple Church, on leaving which he was appointed organist of Waltham Abbey. He did not long remain as organist, but was admitted as tenor in the Choirs of the Temple, Westminster Abbey and the Chapels Royal. He took the chief part for many years in England in oratorios and cantatas. In 1879 he was appointed Professor of Singing at the Royal Academy of Music, which post he held until 1896. In this year he was made Principal of the Guildhall School of Music, where he remained until 1910, when he retired. He was all his life a keen collector of old music, and left a most valuable collection of manuscripts and early printed editions. He wrote many works on music and his musical compositions were very varied. In 1900 he received the degree of Mus.D. from Dublin University.

— **James Fenning Torr**, Recorder of Hastings, died in London at the age of 70. He was educated at Pembroke College, Oxford, and was called to the Bar by the Middle Temple in 1873.

7. **Henry Cornish**, barrister and journalist, died at Surbiton aged 78 years.

7. **Thomas Usborne** died at the age of 75 years. He was educated at Harrow, and Trinity, Cambridge, and sat for Chelmsford in the House of Commons as a Conservative from 1892 to 1900.

— **Vice-Admiral Aubert**, Chief of the General Staff of the Navy (French), died at Val de Grace in his 67th year. In 1905 M. Thomson, then Minister of Marine, appointed him Chief of the General Staff of the Navy, which post he retained until 1909. Two years later he was appointed Inspector of Naval Training Establishments, and shortly afterwards he returned, at M. Delcasse's request, to his old post as Chief of the Navy Staff. In 1913 he reached the age-limit for active service; but after the outbreak of war he rejoined, by special request. He was a good sailor and good leader.

— **John Lloyd**, at one time the most prominent figure in the municipal life of London, died in Bayswater in his 82nd year. Mr. Lloyd came to London in 1877 and was called to the Bar by the Middle Temple; and soon after began to take an interest in municipal affairs. He was elected Progressive member for North Kensington in 1889 in the new Council. He was returned again in 1892, but was defeated at the next and subsequent elections.

— **F. H. Neville, F.R.S.**, Senior Fellow of Sidney Sussex College, died in his 68th year. He was for many years Lecturer in Chemistry and Physics at Sidney Sussex. He contributed to the *Philosophical Transactions*, the *Journal of the Chemical Society* and the "Encyclopædia Britannica."

— **Maitre Carton de Wiart**, one of the leading lawyers in Egypt, died at Cairo. His knowledge of Egypt was remarkable and his opinion was frequently sought by the British authorities. He was a brother of the Belgian Minister of Justice.

10. **Admiral Sir Algernon Heneage** died in London in his 81st year. He entered the Navy in 1846. He served in the Baltic and Black Sea during the Crimean War. He was appointed second in command of the Channel Squadron in 1885, was Commander-in-Chief of the Pacific Station from 1887 to 1890 and Commander-in-Chief at the Nore from 1892 to 1894. Sir Algernon married in 1874 the daughter of Sir Edmund Antrobus, third baronet.

— **Right Rev. John Lloyd, D.D.**, Suffragan Bishop of Swansea, died at

Mumbles, near Swansea. He was born in 1847 and was educated at schools at Haverfordwest and Cardigan and at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, where he graduated as senior optime in 1876. In 1877 he became Vicar of Llanfihangel, Aberbythych, where he remained until 1884, and in turn was appointed to the incumbencies of Penboyr, Carmarthenshire, Carmarthen, and in 1900 to Jeffreston with Reynalton, which benefice he held with a residentiary canonry at St. David's Cathedral, where he was also treasurer.

10. Robert Alexander Kinglake, Recorder of Bournemouth, died aged 72 years. He was educated at Eton and Trinity, Cambridge, and was a distinguished oarsman. He was president of the C.U.B.C. in 1866. Mr. Kinglake took an honours degree in mathematics and was called to the Bar by the Inner Temple in 1868. He was Recorder of Penzance from 1888 until 1899, when he was appointed to the Recordership of Bournemouth.

14. Lord Addington, second baron and eldest son of the first baron, died at Addington House, near Winslow, in his 78rd year. From 1874 to 1880 he represented Buckingham in the House of Commons as a Conservative, and North Buckinghamshire from 1886 to 1889. In 1880 he married the daughter of Sir Wyndham S. Portal, first baronet, and left three sons and two daughters.

15. Sir Nathaniel Barnaby, K.C.B., formerly Director of Naval Construction, died at his house in Lewisham in his 86th year. He was entered as a shipwright apprentice at Sheerness when 14 years old, and in 1848 gained one of the scholarships given by the Lords of the Admiralty. He passed through the Portsmouth school with distinction and was appointed a draughtsman in the Royal Dockyard at Woolwich in 1852. He was later transferred to the Constructive Department of the Admiralty as a draughtsman, and in 1870 became its head. In 1872 he was definitely appointed to the position of Chief Naval Architect, a title which in 1875 was changed to that of Director of Naval Construction. In 1885, owing to a serious breakdown in health, he was forced to retire from public service.

— **Grand Duke Constantine Constantinovitch** was a distinguished poet, musician and *littérateur*. He is known in England as a translator of "Hamlet." The recent death of his son on the battle-

field and the constant strain of the war helped to hasten his end.

15. Archbishop Langevin, of St. Boniface, died at Montreal in his 60th year. He was born in Quebec and educated at the Sulpician College, Montreal, where he was afterwards Professor of Classics.

17. Flight Sub-Lieutenant Warneford, V.C., was killed while flying at Buc Aerodrome. It was only ten days previously that the whole Empire had been thrilled by the marvellous exploit of the young airman, who had destroyed a Zeppelin a mile up in the air between Ghent and Brussels. Flight Sub-Lieutenant Warneford was born in India and was in his 23rd year. He came to England on the death of his father and was adopted by his two grandfathers. He was educated at the Stratford-on-Avon Grammar School and afterwards entered the mercantile marine. After the outbreak of war, Warneford enlisted in the 2nd Sportsman Battalion, but was transferred within a month to the Royal Naval Air Service. He made rapid progress as an airman; he was considered very daring, but possessed never-failing coolness and quickness of decision which always brought him home without accident. It was on the morning of June 7 that he attacked a Zeppelin at a height of 6,000 ft. by dropping six bombs upon it; the airship exploded and fell to the ground. For this wonderful feat he was awarded the Victoria Cross; and the French War Minister, on the recommendation of General Joffre, awarded him the Cross of the Legion of Honour.

18. James Tolman Tanner died in his 57th year. He was known as a librettist of musical plays. "The Quaker Girl," "Our Miss Gibbs" and "A Country Girl" are the best known.

20. Privy Councillor Rathenau died at the age of 76. He was general manager of the Berlin Allgemeine Elektrizitäts Gesellschaft (A.E.G.).

— **Lelia Lady Samuelson**, widow of Sir Bernhard Samuelson, Bart., for many years M.P. for Banbury, died at Rouen.

— **M. Sergius Taneiev**, the Russian composer and pianist and formerly director of the Conservatoire at Moscow, died in his 60th year. He was the pupil and life-long friend of Tchaikovsky.

— **Mrs. Safia Ahmed Faris**, the wife of the late Ahmed Faris, an Arabic

scholar, died in London after a short illness.

24. **Professor Howard Marsh**, Master of Downing College and Professor of Surgery in the University of Cambridge, died at Cambridge in his 77th year. He received his professional training at St. Bartholomew's Hospital where he was a pupil of Sir James Paget. For many years he was a consultant in London and specialised particularly on the treatment of injuries to bones. For a long time he was Surgeon and Lecturer in Surgery at St. Bartholomew's Hospital, and held other important positions, being at one time President of the Metropolitan Branch of the British Medical Association and President of the Clinical Society of London. In 1903 he became Professor of Surgery at Cambridge and from that time he took an active part in the University and town and country life. He was very interested in the Boy Scout movement, and became Honorary Colonel in the R.A.M.C. for the Eastern District. Dr. Marsh married twice, and one of his sons has been for several years private secretary to Mr. Winston Churchill.

— **John Corlett**, former proprietor and editor of the *Sporting Times*, son of Sergeant-Major Corlett, was born in 1841. In 1867 he was appointed to a leading position on the staff of the *Sportsman*, and in 1874 he became sole proprietor. His articles were written in a vigorous and direct style, and were recognised as the best things of the sort that were published.

— **Alexander Cockburn Kenealy**, editor of the *Daily Mirror* since 1904, was born in 1864, son of the famous Dr. Edward Kenealy, Q.C., M.P., counsel in the Tichborne case. Edu-

cated at University College and in France, at the age of 18 he had a good position on the *New York Herald* and whilst on the staff of that paper accompanied Peary's first Arctic Expedition, and again acted as correspondent for the same paper with the American Fleet during the Spanish War. From 1901 to 1904 he was the news editor of the *Daily Express*. He was the author of "The Preposterous Yankee," and "The Letters of Alphonse le Mouton."

24. **Lieutenant-Colonel John Layland Needham**, late Royal Marine Artillery. He entered the R.M.A. in 1859. In 1873 he was appointed Professor of Fortifications at the Royal Naval College at Greenwich, and ten years later he passed to the Retired List, and from that time he was engaged in the preparations of Army candidates.

26. **Robert Heath Lock**, inspector at the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries. He was born in 1879 at Eton College, where his father was at that time an assistant master. Educated at Charterhouse and Caius, Cambridge; in 1902 was Frank Smart student and in 1904 became Fellow of his College. After working at the Royal Botanic Gardens at Ceylon, he acted as Curator of the Cambridge University Herbarium for three years; and in 1912 became Acting Director of the Botanic Gardens in Ceylon. In 1913 he was appointed under the Board of Agriculture. Mr. Lock wrote several books connected with botany and genetics.

— **W. S. Lach-Szyrma**, a writer on antiquities, died at the age of 72. His works included a "History of Penzance" and a "Church History of Cornwall." He was vice-president of the British Archaeological Society in 1907.

JULY.

1. **Prince Alexis Dolgorouki**, died recently in Paris at the age of 68 years. He was a Chamberlain to the Tsar and gained the Cross for Valour, as well as other decorations during the Russo-Turkish War.

2. **The Very Rev. Thomas William Jex-Blake, D.D.**, formerly head master of Rugby and Dean of Wells, was born in 1832 and educated at Rugby. In 1851 he went to Oxford as Scholar of University College. In 1855 he became a Fellow of Queen's, but vacated his fellowship two years later upon his marriage

with Miss Henrietta Cordery. In 1857 he went to Marlborough as Sixth Form Master. In 1858 he went to Rugby, and remained there until he was elected Principal of Cheltenham College in 1868. In 1874 he was elected head master of Rugby, the first Rugby boy to be elected. Dr. Jex-Blake retired in 1887 to the Rectory of Alvechurch in Worcestershire, and in 1891 he became Dean of Wells. He retired from the deanery in 1910 and lived in London.

4. **Sir Theodore Cracraft Hope, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.**, was formerly Public

Works member of the Government of India. Born in 1831, he was the only child of Dr. James Hope, F.R.S. In 1853 he joined the Bombay Civil Service, and two years later was inspector in Gujerat for the newly formed Education Department. In 1871 he was called to Bombay to preside over a committee dealing with the unsatisfactory state of municipal finance. For four or five years Sir Theodore represented his province in the Viceregal Legislature. He served also as secretary in the Revenue Department, and was made additional Secretary for Famine at the close of 1876. In 1882 he became Public Works member of the Governor-General's Council. He was made C.I.E. in 1882 and K.C.S.I. four years later. He left India in 1888. He was a zealous High Churchman and took a great interest in the controversy on religious education in the primary schools.

4. **Francis Elliott Kitchener**, born in 1838, was educated at Repton, Rugby, and Trinity, Cambridge, afterwards becoming a Fellow of his College. He was an assistant master at Wellington and afterwards at Rugby. In 1873 he became head master of the High School at Newcastle-under-Lyme and held this post until 1891. He published several works on education.

7. **Professor Edward Spencer Beesley**, born in 1831. His father was a clergyman of strong evangelical leanings. In 1854-59 he was an assistant master at Marlborough; 1860-93 Professor of History at University College; Professor of Latin at Bedford College 1860-89; Principal of University College Hall 1860-93. He stood for Parliament on two occasions but was not successful. He was a fluent speaker with a fine style and good voice. He was a Positivist of a pronounced kind. He wrote much and perhaps some of his best work was given to the *Positivist Review*.

— **Hendrik Willem Mesdag**, the well-known Dutch marine painter, died at the Hague in his 84th year. At the age of 35 he gave up business and devoted himself to painting at the advice of Josef Israels. He was more highly thought of in France than in Holland, and a picture of his exhibited in the Paris *Salon* of a sea piece without ships gained him the gold medal.

11. **Mrs. Dearmer**, wife of the Rev. Dr. Percy Dearmer, Vicar of St. Mary, Primrose Hill, attached to the Stobart Hospital Mission, died of enteric after a short illness. She was born in 1872 and

was well known as an author, playwright and illustrator. One of her best known novels was "The Difficult Way" which was dramatised and produced at the Court Theatre in 1909. In 1914 she was largely instrumental in founding the Children's Theatre, and her own contribution to it was "The Cockyolly Bird."

11. **Princess Marie Radziwill** was born in Paris in 1840, and during the reign of the Emperor William I. she played a prominent rôle in Berlin society.

— **James Fernandez**, the actor, was born at Petrograd in 1835. His stage career extended over 58 years, his first appearance having been at Hull in 1853 and his last at the "command" performance of "Money" at Drury Lane in 1911.

— **Herr von Wedel** was President of the Upper Chamber of the Prussian Diet.

13. **H.H. Sir Ali Bin Ahmed Bin Ali, K.C.I.E., Sultan of Lahej**, died at Aden, as the result of a wound received during a Turkish attack upon his fortress. He was thoroughly loyal to the British, and his co-operation as a leading chief of the Aden Protectorate was of great value.

14. **Beaumont Williams Hotham**, youngest son of Vice-Admiral Sir Henry Hotham, was born in 1825. He acted as British Consul at Calais from 1859 to 1882.

— **Hon. Maude Alethea Stanley**, born in 1833, daughter of Lord Stanley of Alderley, was for many years interested in social work in London. She founded the first working club for girls at Greek Street, Soho. Miss Stanley sat on the old School Board, and was for many years a manager on the Metropolitan Asylums Board and governor of the Borough Polytechnic. She was a great friend of Thomas Carlyle, and after Mrs. Carlyle's death in 1866 she saw much of him and often accompanied him in his daily ride.

15. **Robert William Raper, B.C.L.**, Senior Fellow, Vice-President, and Bursar of Trinity College, Oxford, was born in Monmouthshire in 1842. Educated at Cheltenham, he matriculated at Balliol in 1861, but in the same year he was elected a scholar of Trinity. In 1861 he won both University prizes for Latin and Greek verse, and a first in Classical Moderations. In 1869 he became Tutor at Trinity, and Fellow in

1871. He became Bursar in 1887 and Vice-President in 1894. Mr. Raper was an accomplished cricketer, rider, swimmer and skater, and was a member of the N.C.C.

19. Rev. Dr. Henry George Woods, Master of the Temple, was born in 1842 and educated at Lancing. An exhibitor and later a scholar of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, he took a first class in Classical Moderations in 1868 and a first in *Literæ Humaniores* in 1865, in which year he became a Fellow of Trinity. In 1866 he was ordained deacon and in 1867 priest; from 1866 to 1880 he was tutor and from 1867 to 1887 bursar. In 1887 he succeeded to the headship of the College, but in 1897 he resigned that position. Dr. Woods was for a few years Rector of Little Gaddesden, Herts, and chaplain and librarian to Lord Brownlow, but on the death of Dr. Ainger in 1905 he became Master of the Temple. Dr. Woods married in 1879 Margaret Louisa, the daughter of Dean Bradley, who is well known as a poet and novelist.

20. John B. Herreshoff, the famous blind yacht designer, died at the age of 77.

21. The Very Rev. Alexander Stewart, D.D., Principal and Primarius Professor of Divinity in St. Mary's College, St. Andrews; he was born in 1847 and educated at Queen's College, Liverpool. In 1868 he won the Ferguson Scholarship in Philosophy. In 1873 he was ordained minister of the Parish of Mains and Strathmartine, near Dundee; in 1887 was appointed Professor of Systematic Theology in Aberdeen University, and in 1902 was Croall Lecturer. The three Universities of St. Andrews, Glasgow and Aberdeen in turn conferred on him the D.D. degree.

— **Lord Torphichen**, the eldest son of the Rev. the Hon. John Sandilands (second son of the tenth baron), was born in 1846. He succeeded his uncle as twelfth baron in 1869, and was elected to a seat in the House of Lords as representative Peer for Scotland in 1894; being re-elected in December, 1910. He served at one time in the Rifle Brigade, retiring in 1881 with the rank of captain.

22. Sir Sandford Fleming, the great engineer, was born in Kirkcaldy, Fife, in 1827. When 18 years of age he emigrated to Canada and soon secured a position on the staff of the Northern Railway, then in the course of construction. In 1857 he became chief engineer of the line. Fleming was later entrusted

with the survey and construction of the Intercolonial Railway to connect the maritime provinces with those of old Canada. Under his direction this line was opened for traffic in 1876. While the Intercolonial was still in progress he undertook as engineer-in-chief the surveys for the Canadian Pacific to cross the Dominion from the Atlantic to the Pacific. In 1872 he headed a preliminary expedition across the prairies and through the gorges of the Rockies. Fleming continued to direct this great work for eight years, but owing to political reasons he resigned his post as chief-engineer in 1880. Later he joined the board of the Canadian Pacific Company. In 1879 he began his advocacy, which was finally successful, of a cable across the Pacific, to connect the Dominion with Australia and New Zealand. In 1877 he was made C.M.G., in 1897 he was promoted to K.C.M.G. In 1880 he was elected Chancellor of Queen's University, an office which he held for more than thirty years.

23. Lord Kesteven, the eldest son of the first baron (who was raised to the peerage in 1868), was born in 1851 and educated at Eton and Magdalene College, Cambridge, succeeding to the title in 1874. He served in South Africa in 1900 with the Imperial Yeomanry. In 1914 he married the widow of Lord Avebury's youngest brother.

— **Edmund Owen, F.R.C.S.**, surgeon-in-chief to the St. John Ambulance Brigade, was born in 1847 and received his medical education at King's College, St. Mary's Hospital, and afterwards in Paris. He devoted himself to surgery, and became a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons. He was consulting surgeon to St. Mary's Hospital, and to the Hospital for Sick Children, Great Ormond Street, and also surgeon to the French Hospital, and was a Chevalier of the Legion of Honour. He held the hon. degrees of LL.D. of the University of Aberdeen, and D.Sc. of the University of Sheffield. He wrote many important works.

26. Sir James Augustus Murray, editor of the "New English Dictionary," was born in 1837 at Denholm, a small village near Hawick. He went to the parish school at Denholm for a time, and afterwards to Minto school on the other side of the Valley, where he remained three and a half years. At 17 years of age he became an assistant master of the Grammar School at Hawick and three years later was head master of a small school in the same place, which was called by the name of the "Sub-

scription Academy." He afterwards attended the lectures of Professor Melville Bell in Edinburgh, who took him to the Philological Society and there introduced him to Furnival, A. J. Elton and others. Murray was already known as a philologist. About this time, in 1870, he went to Mill Hill School as assistant master under Dr. Weymouth. In 1878 the project of publishing a dictionary to rival Webster and Worcester was finally arranged with the Oxford delegates on condition that Murray was editor. It was then contemplated that the dictionary would be finished in a very limited time, and would occupy only a moderate number of volumes. But it proved a tremendous task, and a week or two before his death Sir James produced an instalment of the tenth and last volume. Sir James, who was knighted in 1908, married twice, and had six sons and five daughters.

27. **Lord Glantawe**, the son of a tinplate worker, was born in 1836. As a boy he earned his living by working at the Upper Forest Tinplate Works. At the age of 23 he became outdoor manager of the works, and in 1859 he started with others the Beaufort Tinplate Works at Morriston, and became chief proprietor and manager. He was three times Mayor of Swansea. In 1880 he unsuccessfully stood as an Independent Liberal for Carmarthen Boroughs; but later he was returned unopposed, and retained the seat until 1886, when, becoming a Liberal-Unionist, he was defeated by a Gladstonian. In 1892 he was again defeated in the same constituency. He eventually became an ardent opponent of Tariff Reform. He was raised to the peerage in 1906.

28. **The Earl of Kilmorey**, grandson of the second earl, was born in 1842 and educated at Eton and Oxford. In politics he was a strong Unionist. He contested Newry unsuccessfully in 1868, but won the seat in 1871 and held it till 1874. In 1880, just before he succeeded to the earldom, he was a Parliamentary candidate at Shrewsbury. In 1881 he was elected a representative Peer for Ireland; he took an active interest in Irish affairs and was High Sheriff for Down in 1871. He had been A.D.C. to the King, and was a Knight of Grace of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem. Lord Kilmorey married, in 1881, Constance, daughter of Mr. E. H. Baldock, M.P., by whom he had two sons and a daughter.

30. **Andrew John Herbertson**, Wadham College, Professor of Geography at Oxford, was born at Galashiels in 1865. He became reader at Oxford in 1905, and was appointed to the Chair of Geography in 1910. He was editor of the "Geographical Teacher" and author of numerous works.

— **Second Lieutenant Sidney Clayton Woodroffe, V.C.**, the youngest son of Mr. and Mrs. Henry L. Woodroffe, was born in 1896. He was awarded the Victoria Cross for most conspicuous bravery at Hooze on July 30.

31. **Hon. Richard Cecil Frederick Chichester**, the youngest son of Lord Templemore, was born in 1889. He was at University College, Oxford, and took his degree in 1910. He went out to Serbia in November, 1914, as acting honorary secretary to the first hospital unit of the Serbian Relief Fund. He died at Nish of typhoid fever.

AUGUST.

1. **George Lambert**, a former champion tennis player. Born in 1842, he came of a family of tennis players. In 1869 he became professional at Lord's. In 1871 he became champion of the game; and his brilliancy in the 'seventies will long be remembered. Until 1885 Lambert was unchallenged; but in that year the championship was won after a titanic struggle by Tom Pettitt of Boston, U.S.A., a young man of 25, at Hampton Court.

— **Sir John Downer, K.C.M.G.**, formerly Premier of South Australia. After being a member of the Legislative Assembly for three years he became Attorney-General in the Bray Ministry, and afterwards was Premier three times.

In 1891 he was elected a member of the convention which drafted the Commonwealth Act. In 1897 Sir John Downer attended the Colonial Conference in London.

2. **William Abraham, M.P.** for the Harbour Division of Dublin, was born at Limerick in 1840. He sat in the House of Commons almost continuously as a Nationalist for West Limerick from 1885 till 1892 when he retired. In June, 1910, he was returned unopposed for the Harbour division of Dublin. Mr. Abraham took an active part in the Land League agitation in 1881, and had suffered imprisonment as a political suspect.

3. **Henry Steel**, founder of one of the principal steel concerns of Sheffield. Born in 1831, in his young days he had an extraordinary career in connexion with the Turf, and the proceeds of many of his successful speculations went into the Sheffield steel trade and there made another fortune.

4. **Walter Lewis Emanuel**, the well-known humorous writer and the author of "Charivaria" in *Punch*, was born in 1869 and educated at University College School and Heidelberg University. He was a solicitor by profession. It was in 1902 that he began his "Charivaria" in *Punch*; and was best known for these jests, but his "dog" books such as "A Snob" and "The Dogs of War" were also much read.

— **Miss Matilda Tennyson**, sister of the poet, was born in September, 1816. She was the last survivor of that wonderful family which contributed so much to the poetry and art of the early years of last century.

— **Madame Martina Bergman Osterberg**, the head of the Swedish physical training movement in England, died recently at the age of 65. Madame Osterberg was a Swede who settled in London in the 'seventies. She founded a college for the training of teachers in Ling's Swedish system, which proved a most successful undertaking. She had been offered 30,000*l.* for the college, but a few days before her death she presented it to the Board of Education, which immediately accepted her gift.

— **Madame Linda Villari**, wife of Professor Villari and daughter of James White, M.P., who was a colleague of Professor Fawcett. Madame Villari translated many of her husband's works, besides writing several novels.

9. **Richard Marsh**, the novelist, was born in 1857. He was a prolific writer and between 1895 and 1918 published forty books.

— **Alfred Usher Soord**, the artist, was born in 1867. His picture "The Lost Sheep" was exhibited in the Royal Academy and over 300,000 reproductions of it have been sold in England and America.

10. **Frank Bramley, R.A.**, one of the best known members of the group of artists known as "the Newlyn School" was born in 1857. He studied at Lincoln and Antwerp and began exhibiting at the Academy in 1884. In 1888 he produced "A Hopeless Dawn" which was

bought under the terms of the Chantry Bequest, and now hangs in the Tate Gallery. He was elected Associate of the Royal Academy in 1894 and R.A. in 1911. He was gold medalist of the French *Salon*.

10. **Edwin Greene**, the song composer. His song "Sing me to Sleep" has been translated into every European and many other foreign languages. Its sale passed a million copies.

11. **Professor Cook Wilson**, Wykeham Professor of Logic at Oxford, was the eldest son of the Rev. James Wilson, born at Nottingham, 1849. Educated at Derby school, he went to Balliol in 1868 as an exhibitioner, and in 1869 became a scholar. In 1873 he won the Latin Essay prize, and in the following year he was elected to a fellowship at Oriel. In 1909 he was made an honorary Fellow of Oriel. After graduating, he studied for a time at Göttingen, becoming a pupil of Lotze. He spoke and wrote German with an extraordinary facility. He was an ardent volunteer and retired with the honorary rank of major in 1904, and in 1905 he received the Volunteer Long Service Medal.

12. **Sir John Storey Barwick** was born in 1840. From a humble origin he rose to an important commercial position on the North-East coast. He was a Liberal in politics and was created a baronet in 1912.

— **Sir Peter Eade, M.D.**, son of Mr. Peter Eade of Blofield, was born in 1824. He practised as a physician at Norwich for nearly fifty years and was mayor of the city three times. He received a knighthood in 1885.

13. **Sir Charles Allen Lawson**, the founder of the *Madras Mail*, was born in 1837. He went out to India at an early age and in 1862 he joined the staff of the *Madras Times* and a few months later became editor of the *Madras Daily News*. In 1868 he established the *Madras Mail* in association with Henry Cornish. The *Mail* finally became the leading newspaper in Southern India. He was the author of several books.

— **Daniel de Losques**, a talented caricaturist, whose sketches of personalities of Paris often appeared in the *Figaro*. He was killed in action whilst flying.

15. **Lieutenant-Colonel G. A. Edsell**, who was an M.D. of Durham, received his medical education at Uni-

versity College and St. Bartholomew's Hospitals. He became an L.R.C.P. London and an M.R.C.S. England in 1886. In 1905 he obtained the Diploma of Public Health, both of London and Cambridge. He was invalided home from the front a short while before his death. He had been commanding officer of the 1st/3rd Home Counties Field Ambulance R.A.M.C. (T.F.).

19. Professor Henri Chatelain, D.-ès-L., died in a military hospital in Paris. He contracted a dangerous illness in April through a winter in the trenches near Soissons, from which he never recovered. He was appointed to the Chair of French in Birmingham University in 1909. He was a recognised authority on the French of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

20. Professor Ehrlich was the son of Jewish parents born in Silesia in 1854. He was educated at the gymnasium at Breslau, and afterwards at the Universities of Breslau and Strasburg, where he graduated in medicine. From the beginning of his career he took the deepest interest in the relationship existing between scientific medicine and chemistry. He chose aniline dyes for his first work, which was performed in Berlin in connexion with tuberculosis and the staining by dyes of the tubercle bacillus. He next discovered a method of testing the potency of the anti-diphtheria serum by means of the use of guinea-pigs. He then found a dye called "trypan red" which was capable of curing fatal trypanosome infection in mice. Working further, Ehrlich conducted a series of experiments, the result of which was his greatest discovery, Salvarsan or 606. He also performed important researches in connexion with cancer. He was honoured by almost every University. He received the Nobel prize which was divided between him and Metchnikoff. In 1897 he was created Geheimrat, and in 1911 Wirklicher Geheimrat. In 1907 he lectured in London.

— **William Hugh Spottiswoode**, son of William Spottiswoode, president of the Royal Society, was born in 1864. He was educated at Eton and Balliol, and had been a partner in the firm of Eyre & Spottiswoode since 1885. Later he became the director and manager of the firm. He was the founder of *Printers' Pie* which was first published in 1903.

— **Thomas Basil Etherington-Smith**, the old Oxford University oarsman, was the son of Mr. J. H. Ethering-

ton-Smith, Recorder of Derby. He was born in 1879 and educated at Repton and Oriel, Oxford. He went into the Egyptian Civil Service and at the time of his death was acting as Sub-Director General of Accounts in the Egyptian Ministry of Finance.

22. Canon John Richardson Illingworth was born in 1848. He was a scholar of Corpus Christi College, Oxford. In 1872 he was elected a Fellow and tutor of Jesus, and tutor of Keble. He was Bampton Lecturer in 1894. Edinburgh University conferred on him the honorary degree of D.D.

28. The Dowager Countess of Feversham was the second daughter of Sir James Graham, second baronet of Netherby. She married Lord Feversham in 1851. There were three sons and four daughters of the marriage.

29. René Bérenger, life Senator and Member of the Institute, was born in 1830. He was a functionary under the Second Empire. In 1871 he was elected Deputy and in 1875 he was made life Senator by the National Assembly. He held various public offices, principally the Ministry of Public Works.

— **Adolphe Pégoud**, the famous airman, was born in 1887. In 1913 he made his sensational experiments in flying upside down. Throughout the war he rendered great service and had received the Legion of Honour and the Military Medal. He was killed at the front.

30. Edmond James de Poer de la Poer, of Gurteen le Poer, Co. Waterford, Count de la Poer of the Papal States, was born in 1841. He was the eldest son of Mr. John William Power, M.P. of Gurteen. From 1866 to 1873 he sat as Liberal M.P. for Co. Waterford. He was at one time a private Chamberlain to the Pope. He assumed the original family surname of de la Poer by Royal licence in 1863 and received his papal title in the year following. In 1881 he married the Hon. Mary Monsell, only daughter of the first Lord Emly. There were three sons and three daughters of the marriage.

— **Captain Sir H. Archer Croft, Bart.**, 1st Herefordshire Regiment, was the eldest son of Sir Herbert Croft, ninth baronet, born in 1863, and educated at Westminster. Soon after the declaration of war he enlisted as a private, but in November 1914 he rose to the rank of captain. He was reported missing on August 10, in Gallipoli, but later it was believed he died of his wounds. Sir

Archer was a D.L. and J.P. for Herefordshire, High Sheriff in 1911 and a member of the Herefordshire County Council.

31. **Captain J. A. Liddell, V.C.**, of the 3rd Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders and the Royal Flying Corps, was born in 1888, the eldest son of Mr. John Liddell of Sherfield Manor, Basingstoke. He died of the wounds received while flying on July 31 when he won the V.C.

— **Marquis Kaoru Inouye** was one of the "Elder Statesmen" of Japan. As a young man he was one of the leaders in the revolt against the military dictator-

ship of the Tokugawa Shogun, and with his associates was violently opposed to the intrusion of foreigners. In 1864, however, these ideas completely changed by a secret visit to England. In 1870 Inouye became Vice-Minister of Finance, which he held under Count Okuma until 1873, when he resigned. At different times down to 1898 he held the portfolios of Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Finance, Agriculture and Commerce. In 1907 he was raised from the rank of Count, which had been conferred on him in 1884, to that of Marquis. His name will always be remembered as one of the makers of New Japan.

SEPTEMBER.

1. **Mrs. Boyd Carpenter** was wife of Bishop Boyd Carpenter, Canon of Westminster. She married the Bishop as his second wife in 1883. She left one son and two daughters.

— **Lieutenant-General Charles Augustus Goodfellow, V.C.**, Colonel-Commandant, R.E., was born in 1835. In 1855 he entered the Bombay Engineers and served through the Mutiny Campaign, receiving mention in despatches in July, 1858. In the following year he received the Victoria Cross. He attained the rank of Lieutenant-General in 1892.

2. **Edmund Granville Ward** was born in 1853, the eldest son of Dr. William George Ward. He was educated at Old Hall and Stonyhurst. In 1888 he was appointed private Chamberlain to Pope Leo XIII., who afterwards created him Knight Commander of the Cross of St. Gregory. Mr. Ward took a special interest in the English Benedictines at Douai, and spent a large sum of money in adding a new wing to the college. The whole property, however, was sold by the French Government in 1903 on the dispersal of the religious orders.

— **Captain Charles H. Collet, D.S.O., R.M.A.** (Flight Commander, R.N.A.S.), was regarded as one of the best naval airmen and was the hero of the air raid on Dusseldorf in September 1914; for this exploit he received the Distinguished Service Order. Captain Collet was the first officer in the Naval Air Service to loop the loop.

— **Lieutenant von Forstner**, who figured in the Zabern affair, was recently killed in action.

4. **Sir John Michael Fleetwood Fuller**, born in 1864, was the eldest son of Mr. George Pargiter Fuller, formerly Liberal M.P. for West Wilts. He was educated at Winchester and Christ Church. In 1900 he was elected Liberal M.P. for West Wilts. In 1894-5 he acted as A.D.C. to the Viceroy of India. In 1906 he was appointed Junior Lord of the Treasury, and in the following year Vice-Chamberlain of the Household. In 1911 he was appointed Governor of Victoria. In 1914, through ill-health, he resigned his post. He was created baronet in 1910, and in 1911 he received the further honour of K.C.M.G.

— **Sir William Chichele Plowden, K.C.S.I.**, was born in 1832 and educated at Harrow and the East India College, Haileybury, on nomination to the Company's service. He arrived in India in 1852 and was posted to the Upper Provinces. He soon reached the grade of Deputy-Commissioner and served in various districts of Upper India. In 1878 Lord Lytton made him president of a committee to devise plans for a complete census of the Indian Empire, taken in 1881. He succeeded Sir Charles Elliott as Census Commissioner and wrote the first general Indian census report. He retired in 1885 and was created K.C.S.I. the following year. In 1886 Plowden was returned for West Wolverhampton as a Gladstonian, and retained the seat until 1892. Sir William married in 1862, Emily Frances Anne, daughter of Mr. Michael Bass.

9. **Major-General Archibald Lewis Playfair** was the son of Sir Hugh Lyon Playfair, K.C.B. He came of a family of soldiers, his father and two uncles, his six sons and four grandsons having all served as officers in the Army. General Playfair entered the Army in 1856 and

joined the 7th Bengal Native Infantry at Dinapore. He held the Mutiny medal with the special clasp for Lucknow. After thirty-two years in India he finally retired with the rank of major-general and was appointed colonel of the 97th Deccan Infantry in 1909.

9. Herbert Thomas Steward, one of the greatest authorities on rowing, was born in 1839 and educated at Westminster. For over thirty years Mr. Steward had been on the list of Stewards of Henley Royal Regatta. He had been President of the Leander Club since the death of Sir Patrick Colquhoun and Chairman of the Committee of the Amateur Rowing Association since 1881. In 1912 he served as Chairman of the Olympic Regatta Committee. He was the author of "Records of Henley Regatta."

10. Right Hon. Sir Claude Maxwell MacDonald, G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., K.C.B., was born in 1852, and entered the Army in 1872 after passing through the Military College at Sandhurst, as a subaltern in the Highland Light Infantry. He saw active service in the Egyptian Expedition of 1882, and in 1888 was appointed Military Attaché to the British Agency in Cairo. In 1884 he took part in the operations in the Eastern Sudan. In 1887 he went to Zanzibar as Acting-Agent and Consul-General, and the year after he was appointed Her Majesty's Commissioner on the West Coast of Africa; a post which he held until 1895. In that year, when the Legation at Peking became vacant, Sir Claude MacDonald was appointed to this most difficult and responsible post. In May 1900 he was created a G.C.M.G., and subsequently received the China medal and clasp, together with a Military K.C.B., and the rank of Colonel, for the thorough way in which he had organised the defence of the legations. In October of the same year he was transferred to Tokyo as Minister, and in 1905 became the first British Ambassador to Japan, and retired in December 1912. The Emperor of Japan conferred on him the First Class of the Order of the Rising Sun.

— **The Rev. William Wallace, D.D., D.Litt.**, Vicar of St. Luke's, Burdett Road, E., was born in 1828. He won a scholarship at Trinity College in 1849 and graduated in 1853. He had been an East-End incumbent for more than forty years.

10. Rev. Annesley William Streane, D.D., Fellow of Corpus, Cambridge, the son of the Ven. L. H. Streane, Archdeacon of Glendalough, and Canon of Christ Church, Dublin, was born in 1845. He graduated first at Trinity College, Dublin, where he gained the Wall Biblical scholarship and the first Berkeley gold medal. In 1871 he entered Emmanuel College, Cambridge, as a foundation scholar. He was elected to a fellowship and lectureship in theology at Corpus Christi College. He held the office of Dean of Corpus for twelve years and was Senior Proctor in 1891-2. For nine years he held the college living of Granchester. Dr. Streane was a Hebrew scholar of great repute.

— **Sir Charles Boucher de Boucherville** was born in 1822. He graduated Doctor of Medicine (Paris) in 1843, and for many years practised in his native district of Quebec. In 1861 he entered the Canadian Assembly and in 1879 was called to the Senate. From 1867 until 1873 he was Speaker of the Legislative Council of Quebec, and held the same office as Premier from 1874 to 1876. In 1891-2 he was again Premier of Quebec, being created C.M.G. two years later and K.C.M.G. in 1914.

— **M. Louis Huysmans** was born in 1845. He was a Belgian Minister of State and an eminent Radical. He was first elected to Parliament in 1892.

11. Sir William Van Horne was born in 1843 and descended from an Old Dutch family of New York. His father died at an early age, and William Van Horne when 14 years old, had to work as an office boy in the railway station at Joliet. At the age of 21 he went to the Chicago and Alton Railway, where he obtained rapid promotion. In 1872 he became general superintendent of the St. Louis, Kansas City & Northern Railway, and two years later became general manager of the Southern Minnesota Railway. In 1880 he became general superintendent of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railway. In 1881 he resigned in order to become general manager of the Canadian Pacific Railway. It was at this time that Mr. Van Horne was recognised in the railway world as a man with a unique mastery of the details of railway work as well as being a man of great power and insight. His services to this company were immense. In 1884 he became vice-president of the railway, and in 1888 was elected to the office of

president. In 1889 he resigned, but until 1910 he acted as chairman of the board of directors. In 1894 he was knighted by Queen Victoria.

12. Sir Arthur John Hammond Collins was born in 1834. He was called to the Bar at Gray's Inn (he was also a barrister of the Middle Temple) in 1860, took silk in 1877, and was elected in the same year a bencher of Gray's Inn. In the two years 1883 and 1905 he was treasurer of this society. In 1878 he was appointed Recorder of Poole, and in 1879 Recorder of Exeter, holding this last office until 1885 when he was appointed Chief Justice of the High Court of Madras, receiving a knighthood at the same time. He presided over that court for nearly fifteen years. Sir Arthur Collins married in 1863 the only daughter of the late Rev. Richard Wilson, D.D., of Chelsea, sometime Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.

14. Sir John Knox Laughton was born in Liverpool in 1830 and educated at the Royal Institution School and at Caius College, Cambridge. He entered the Navy in 1853 as a naval instructor. He served in the *Royal George* during the Russian War and afterwards in the *Calcutta*. Laughton then served in the Mediterranean and Channel Fleets, and in 1866 became mathematical and naval instructor at the Royal Naval College in Portsmouth; he was afterwards transferred to the Royal Naval College at Greenwich. In 1885 he retired from active service on being appointed Professor of Modern History at King's College, London, which post he held until his death. From 1882 to 1884 he was president of the Royal Meteorological Society. He wrote all the naval biographies in the "Dictionary of National Biography," besides numerous other works on naval history. His most lasting and perhaps his greatest work was the foundation of the Navy Records Society in the early 'nineties of last century. In 1912 Sir John resigned from the secretaryship of this society, though he remained a member of its council.

15. Dr. Alexander Van Millingen was born in 1840, the son of Dr. Julius Van Millingen, who was associated with Lord Byron in the War of Greek Independence. He was educated at the Malta Protestant College, at Blair Lodge Academy, and at Edinburgh University. He was an honorary student of the British School at Athens and was the author of several books on the history of Constantinople. He was also a con-

tributor to the "Encyclopædia Britannica."

15. Arthur Williams, born in 1844, was a member of a well-known theatrical family. He made his first appearance on the stage in the "Corsican Brothers" at the age of 17, and was the Touchstone in the production of "As You Like It" in 1911, the year being his stage jubilee. He had played over 1,000 parts in the fifty years.

17. William Francis Dewey was born in 1840. He was the doyen of London town clerks, having been in the municipal service of Islington for forty-five years.

— **General Sir William Anthony Gib, K.C.B.**, the son of a naval officer was born in 1826. He was educated privately, and at the age of 16 got a commission as ensign in the Indian Army, afterwards being posted to the 48th Madras Infantry. He was promoted captain shortly before the outbreak of the Mutiny. In 1863 he became a major in the Madras Staff Corps, and in 1867 assistant adjutant-general. In 1885 he was promoted major-general, in 1890 lieutenant-general, and general in 1895. At the diamond jubilee he was made a K.C.B.

18. Sir John Pound, the son of Henry Pound, leather merchant, was born in 1829. He was educated at Christ's Hospital and on leaving there entered his father's business. In 1869 he was elected a member of the common council and served as chairman of several corporation committees. In 1892 he was elected Alderman of Aldgate Ward, and in 1895 became Sheriff of London. He was Lord Mayor in 1904-5. In 1905 he was created a baronet.

20. Sir James Matthew Moody was the youngest son of the late John Moody, fleet surgeon, R.N. He was well known for his work as Medical Superintendent of the London County Asylum, Cane Hill, to which position he was appointed in 1883.

— **Francis Courtney Drake**, born in 1868, was educated at Winchester and New College, Oxford, and rowed in the University Eight. In 1892 he entered the Public Record Office and a few months later was transferred to the India Office. From 1894 to 1898 he was private secretary to Sir Arthur Godley (now Lord Kilbracken), the permanent Under-Secretary of State. In 1907 he became assistant secretary in the Revenue Department, and in 1912 he

was promoted to the secretaryship. He was Deputy Clerk of the Council of India from July 1911 to February 1912.

21. William Henry Hoar Hudson was born in 1838, and educated at King's College, London, and St. John's, Cambridge, and was third Wrangler in 1861. He was elected the year after to a Fellowship at St. John's which he held until 1875. He was Mathematical Lecturer at his college from 1869 to 1881. In 1882 he was appointed to the King's College Chair of Mathematics, which he held until 1903; he was also Professor of Mathematics, and afterwards honorary Fellow of Queen's College, London. Professor Hudson published many works on mathematics.

— **Major-General H. G. Robison** was born in 1825. He saw his first active service in the Southern Mahratta Campaign of 1844-5 with the 7th Bombay Native Infantry. In the Crimean Campaign he served in the Turkish Cavalry Contingent; he also fought in the Indian Mutiny and was mentioned in despatches.

22. Surgeon-General Sir Lionel Dixon Spencer, K.C.B., was born in 1842 and entered the Indian Medical Service in 1865. He acted as Principal Medical Officer with the Warzristan Expedition of 1894-5 and was mentioned in despatches and received the C.B. for his services; in 1895 he was awarded a good service pension. He retired in 1902, and four years later was appointed honorary surgeon to the King, receiving the K.C.B. in 1909.

— **Rear-Admiral Arthur Morrell**, born in 1831, entered the Navy in 1843 and served on the West Coast of Africa until 1848. He was second in command of the *Kingfisher* as a midshipman and had charge of a prize. He next served on the Cape and Brazil stations and during the Burmese War, and in China from 1852 to 1857, being constantly employed in boat service against pirates. He also served in Borneo. After his retirement he was Captain Superintendent of the training ship *Cornwall* for twenty-nine years.

— **Chevalier Luigi Ricci** was born in 1842, the eldest son of Count Ricci d'Avalos, Marquis of Pescara, Grandee of Spain of the first class. He was educated at Pisa and Padua, and left the Royal Military College in Italy to join Garibaldi in the war of 1866. In the last Franco-German War he gave his services to France and took part in the defence of Paris. He came to London

soon afterwards and took part in several literary movements; in 1881 he founded the Dante Society, and the Genealogical and Biographical Society in 1901. For some time he was a professor at the University of London. He was the author of many notable works on Italian subjects.

25-27. Andrew John Viscount Stuart, eldest son of the Earl and Countess of Castlestewart, was born in 1880 and educated at Shrewsbury and Corpus Christi College, Oxford. He failed to pass for the Indian Civil Service, and turned to literary and scholastic work, interesting himself chiefly in educational and agricultural questions. When the European War broke out he applied for a commission and was appointed to the 6th Royal Scots Fusiliers. He went to France in May, where between September 25 and 27 he was killed in action.

26. J. Keir Hardie, Labour M.P. for Merthyr Tydvil, was born in Scotland in 1856. He began work in the mines at the age of 7 and continued at this occupation until he was 24. In 1880 he was elected secretary of the Lanarkshire Miners' Union, and threw himself with great zeal into the work of trade unionist and political agitation. He attempted to get elected to Parliament as a Labour candidate for Mid-Lanark in 1888, but was beaten. In 1892, however, he was returned for South-West Ham. He was defeated in 1895, but at the general election of 1900 he was elected for Merthyr Tydvil, which constituency he represented until his death. He was for many years chairman and throughout his political career the leader of the Independent Labour party. In 1906 when the Labour party became a distinct group in the House of Commons Keir Hardie was elected its first chairman, which position he held for two sessions. He was always regarded as the most extreme of British politicians. He did not hide his republican opinions and was one of the strongest opponents of the South African War, and was an ardent pacifist before the outbreak of the European War. He did much good and unselfish work for Labour causes.

28. Arthur Francis Leach, the son of Thomas Leach, barrister, was born in 1851 and educated at Winchester and New College, Oxford. In 1872 he won the Stanhope University Prize Essay, and was a Fellow of All Souls from 1874 to 1881. He was called to the Bar by the Middle Temple in 1874, and in 1884 was appointed assistant charity

commissioner for the Endowed Schools Department. In 1901 he became administrative examiner under the Board of Education, and two years later assistant secretary. Mr. Leach was a well-known authority on the early history of education, and was the author of many books on the subject.

28. Captain Bindon Blood, a member of the well-known Irish family, the Bloods of Cranagher, Co. Clare, was born in 1881. He served through the South African War. In 1913 he joined the 4th Hussars. He served with that regiment from the beginning of the European War and was mentioned in despatches. In February 1915 he was attached to the Royal Flying Corps, and it was during practice with an aeroplane that he met with an accident and died from his injuries.

30. Sir George Farwell, the second son of Frederick Cooper Farwell of Tettenhall, Staffordshire, and Totnes, Devon, was born in 1845. He was educated at Rugby and Balliol, and called to the Bar in November 1871. In 1874 he wrote the "Concise Treatise on the Law of Powers," which was much read in the profession, and in 1893 a second edition was issued. In 1891 Farwell became a Q.C., and attached himself to the court of Mr. Justice Chitty and afterwards he transferred himself to Mr. Justice Romer's court. In October 1899, owing to the complaint of insufficiency of Judges on the Chancery Division, he was appointed as an additional Judge under the powers conferred by the Appellate Jurisdiction Act, 1876. He had his great opportunity when he was Vacation Judge in September 1900 in the form of a summons in an action of the Taff Vale Railway Company against the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants. Farwell's decision in the case was reversed by the Court of Appeal; but in the House of Lords the decision of the Court of Appeal was reversed and that of Farwell restored. The final judgment led to the passing of the Trade Disputes Act, 1906. The Taff Vale judgment marked him for early promotion, and in 1906 he was appointed a Lord Justice. In 1908 Sir George Farwell received the honorary degree of LL.D. from Edinburgh University. In 1913, owing to ill-health, he resigned his position in the Court of Appeal, but after a rest he was able to sit in the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. He married in 1873 Mary Erskine, daughter of the late Vice-Chancellor Sir J. Wickens,

30. Major-General Sir Thompson Capper, K.C.M.G., C.B., D.S.O., born in 1863, was the third son of William Copeland Capper, of the Indian Civil Service. He joined the Army in 1882, serving in the East Lancashire Regiment. He obtained his company in 1891 and went through many campaigns with distinction. In 1895 he gained the medal with clasp for the Chitral Relief Force, a brevet majority for services in the Sudan in 1898 and the D.S.O., the Queen's medal (with six clasps), the King's medal (with two clasps) and the brevet rank of lieutenant-colonel during the South African War. He was also for some time a professor at the Staff College, and his success there led to his selection as the first commandant of the new Staff College in India. He was made a C.B. in 1910, and in 1911 became Brigadier-General in command of the 13th Infantry Brigade. In the early part of 1914 he was promoted Major-General and later in the year commanded the 7th Division which went to secure, if possible, the safety of Antwerp. For his services then and later he was created a K.C.M.G. He was considered one of the most brilliant and promising of the younger generals of the British Army and his death from wounds was a severe loss.

— **H. T. Cawley, M.P.**, the second son of Sir Frederick Cawley, M.P., was born in 1878 and educated at Rugby and New College, Oxford. Called to the Bar at the Inner Temple in 1902 he practised on the Northern Circuit. He was elected as a Liberal for the Heywood Division of Lancashire at the two general elections of 1910 by large majorities. He was a lieutenant in the Manchester Regiment (T.F.) and obtained his company after the outbreak of the war in 1914. He was killed in action at the Dardanelles.

— **Right Rev. Alfred George Elliott**, Bishop of Kilmore, was the oldest member of the Irish Episcopal Bench. Born in 1828 and educated at Dublin University, he took his degree in 1858 and was ordained in the same year. He was elected to the bishopric in 1897.

— **Edmund McNeill**, born in 1821, was the head of a branch of a Highland clan which migrated from Argyllshire to Ulster in the time of James II. He spent several years of his youth sheep-farming in Australia, and returned to Ireland in 1847, where he took up land agency as a business, and was himself an owner of property in Antrim and Derry. He was later a Deputy Lieu-

tenant of Antrim and High Sheriff in 1879.

30. Professor Edward A. Minchin, F.R.S., Professor of Protozoology at London University, was born in 1866 and educated at Keble College, Oxford. He was a Fellow of Merton from 1893 to 1900, and also held the Radcliffe Travelling Fellowship. He was Demonstrator

of Comparative Anatomy at Oxford from 1890 to 1899, and afterwards for seven years Jodrell Professor of Zoology and Comparative Anatomy at University College, London. In 1905 he was a member of the Royal Society Sleeping Sickness Commission in Uganda. Professor Minchin wrote several important works on zoological subjects.

OCTOBER.

1. Frank T. Sabin, the well-known Art dealer of New Bond Street, was born in 1848. Mr. Sabin took a particular interest in the artistic branch of his business, making a special feature of English, French and Dutch works and old colour prints.

— **Lance-Corporal William Kenally, V.C.**, died of wounds in hospital at Malta. He was one of the three representatives of the survivors of the 1st Battalion Lancashire Fusiliers chosen by their comrades to receive the V.C. in recognition of the conspicuous gallantry shown by the battalion in the landing in Gallipoli on April 25.

2. Major-General Frederick Drummond Vincent Wing, C.B., was the only son of Major Vincent Wing, born in 1860. He was gazetted lieutenant in the Royal Artillery in 1880, was promoted captain in 1888, major in 1898, brevet lieutenant-colonel in 1900, and brevet colonel in 1906. In 1903 he was A.D.C. to Lord Roberts, and in 1913-14 he held the command of the Royal Artillery 3rd Division Southern Command. He saw active service in South Africa, 1899-1902. In the European War he was promoted major-general for distinguished service in the field. He was killed in action in France.

3. Surgeon-General Sir Charles McDonough Cuffe, K.C.B., was born in 1842. He became an assistant surgeon in the Army in 1863, and was afterwards appointed to the 11th Hussars. He served through the Kaffir and Zulu campaigns of 1877-79 and was mentioned in dispatches. He also served in the Burmese Expedition of 1887-88.

— **Hon. T. C. R. Agar-Robartes, M.P.**, was the eldest son of Lord Clifden, born in 1880. He was educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford. In 1906 he was elected as a Liberal for Bodmin, but his election was followed by a petition and he was unseated on the ground that an agent had acted corruptly. In 1908 he was returned unopposed for

St. Austell, Cornwall, which he represented up to the time of his death. He was consistently opposed to Irish Home Rule and supported the cause of Ulster. Mr. Agar-Robartes was formerly a captain in the Royal 1st Devon Imperial Yeomanry and later in the Royal Bucks Hussars. He obtained a commission in the Coldstream Guards in January, 1915, was wounded in May but returned to France soon afterwards; was again wounded and from these wounds he never recovered.

4. Sir Thomas Townsend Bucknill was the second son of the famous lunacy doctor, Sir J. C. Bucknill, F.R.S.; born in 1845, educated at Westminster and completing his studies at Geneva. He was called to the Bar by the Inner Temple in 1868 and became a benchman in 1891. The greatest trial in which he was engaged was that of the West of England Bank directors at the Central Criminal Court in 1880 before Lord Chief Justice Cockburn. Mr. Bucknill was Junior Counsel for one of the accused with Mr. Charles Russell, Q.C. (afterwards Lord Chief Justice). The trial lasted from April 28 to May 6 and ended in the acquittal of all seven defendants. In 1885 he took silk. In 1892 he was returned to Parliament as a Conservative for Mid-Surrey. He was elevated to the Bench in succession to the late Lord Brampton—then Mr. Justice Hawkins. Sir Thomas Bucknill married in 1878 a daughter of Mr. Henry Bell Ford, of Clifton.

— **George Edwardes** was born in 1852 of Irish parents. He was intended for the Army, but at an early age he showed a taste for business. He began his career under Michael Gunn at the Gaiety Theatre, Dublin. In 1875 he became business manager for D'Oyly Carte at the Opéra Comique and went on with him to the Savoy. In 1885 he joined John Hollingshead at the Gaiety, and a year later he became sole manager of the theatre which he directed up to the time of his death. His special achievement was musical comedy, and in

1894 he began the list with the "Shop Girl." In 1892 Edwardes took on the control of the Prince of Wales Theatre, where he produced more musical comedies, and later, when Daly's theatre became vacant, he took that too, and produced there musical comedies of a different kind. In 1909 he added the Adelphi Theatre to his list and produced musical comedy there too. At the outbreak of the European War he was on his annual visit to a German spa, and was kept prisoner for several months. Although his treatment was not unduly severe, it undoubtedly hastened his death.

4. **Herr Karl Staaff**, born in 1860, was formerly Prime Minister of Sweden and leader of the Liberal party.

6. **Hon. Charles Thomas Mills**, M.P., the eldest son of the second Lord Hillingdon, was born in 1887. He was educated at Eton and Magdalen College, Oxford, and played golf for Oxford against Cambridge in 1907 and 1908. In 1910 at the General Election, he was elected M.P. for the Uxbridge Division of Middlesex. He had been for several years a lieutenant in the West Kent Yeomanry, and in May, 1915, he was gazetted second lieutenant in the 2nd Scots Guards. He was killed in action.

10. **Rev. John Ebenezer Marks**, D.D., was born in 1832. He spent nearly forty years as a missionary in Burma, and proved one of the most skilful and successful of missionary schoolmasters. He learned to speak Burmese like a native, and was thus enabled to acquire great influence. In 1879 Archbishop Tait conferred the Lambeth degree on Dr. Marks in "recognition of the services which he has rendered to the cause of Christian education in Burma." In 1900 he was pensioned by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.

— **Sir Oswald Mosley** was born in 1848, the eldest son of Sir Tonman Mosley, third baronet of Ancoats. He was educated at Eton and succeeded to the title in 1890. He took a keen interest in agriculture and stock-breeding and was at one time president of the Smithfield Club. He was also a gardener on a very large scale and had a very fine collection of British birds. Sir Oswald owned nearly 4,000 acres. He married in 1873 the daughter of Sir William White, by whom he had one son and three daughters.

11. **Henry David Greene**, K.C., was born in 1843, the son of Mr. B. B.

Greene, formerly Governor of the Bank of England. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and was called to the Bar by the Middle Temple in 1868. In 1885 he took silk and sat as Unionist for Shrewsbury from 1892 to 1906.

11. **Miss Evelyn March Philipps** was the eldest daughter of Mr. Spencer March Philipps, Edinburgh reviewer and writer on international law. She lived for many years in Italy and had made a study of Italian Art. She wrote books on "Frescoes in the Sistine Chapel," "Pintoricchio," "Tintoretto" and "The Venetian School of Painting," as well as many articles in reviews.

— **Alfred Mézières** was born at Réhon in 1826. At the age of twenty-seven he was appointed Professor of Foreign Literature at Nancy University, and ten years later obtained the same chair at the Sorbonne. In 1881 he entered the Chamber of Deputies for Briey and from 1885 to 1898 he represented the Department of Meurthe et Moselle. He was elected Senator in 1900. When the European War broke out and the Germans invaded France, M. Mézières remained at Réhon, and the efforts of Spain and Papal intervention failed to obtain his release.

— **Jean Henri Fabre** was born in 1823 at Sainte-Leone in Aveyron of very poor parents. At the age of ten he went to Rodez to act as choir boy and to receive a free education; here he was taught Latin but very little else. He then passed on to the normal school at Vaucluse, where he studied other subjects and improved his Latin, and at the age of eighteen was qualified to begin his career as a teacher. He was appointed to manage the primary school in the College of Carpentras and in his spare time he studied physics and mathematics. It was at this time that by a mere chance his interest in insects was aroused, and he spent a whole month's salary to buy a book on entomology. From this time this study became his greatest pleasure, and later in life a thesis in natural history gained him his doctor's degree. As a naturalist he was noted for his powers of observation and for his extraordinary patience in investigating the life-history of insects. His earliest observations were published in the "Annales des Sciences Naturelles" from 1855 to 1858. They were later amplified in his "Souvenirs Entomologiques," published at intervals from 1879 to 1907 in ten volumes. Great entomologist though he was, Fabre was only very learned in one special branch—the study of the living insect. Soon after the

publication of his first observations he was made Chevalier of the Legion of Honour and in 1912 he was granted a pension by the French Government. In 1894 he was made an honorary member of the Entomological Society of France, and that of London in 1904.

13. **Miss Edith Cavell** was the daughter of the late Rev. Frederick Cavell, for forty years Vicar of Swardston, Norfolk. She was trained as a nurse at the London Hospital, and on the opening of the *Ecole Belge d'Infirmières Diplômées*, Brussels, in 1907, Miss Cavell was appointed matron of the school. Soon after the outbreak of the European War she could have returned to England, when seventy English nurses were able to leave Belgium through the good offices of the United States Ambassador, but she chose to remain at her post. Miss Cavell was executed at Brussels by the Germans for harbouring British, French and Belgian soldiers and assisting them to escape.

— **Canon Thomas Legh Cloughton** was the second son of Dr. T. L. Cloughton, born in 1847. He was educated at Trinity College, Oxford, and graduated in the old school of law and history in 1870. He was ordained in the diocese of Lichfield and became Vicar of Kidderminster in 1880. In 1886 he was nominated by the Crown to a residentiary canonry of Worcester Cathedral. He was founder of the Worcester Festival Choral Society and Chairman of the Music Committee of the Three Choirs Festival.

16. **Sir Lionel E. G. Carden, K.C.M.G.**, was born in 1851 and educated at Eton. In 1877 he was appointed Vice-Consul at Havana. He was British Commissioner on the Mixed Mexican Claims Commission from 1885 to 1889 and filled various consular and diplomatic posts in Mexico, Cuba and Central America. He was minister in Guatemala from 1905 till 1913. In the spring of 1914 Sir Lionel was appointed minister to Brazil; but at the request of Sir Edward Grey, instead of taking up the post, he returned to Mexico. Friction with the United States occurred over the rival candidates for the Presidency and he was eventually recalled to London, where he learned that his appointment to Brazil had been revoked.

17. **Félix Decori** was the Civil Secretary of the President of the Republic and a great personal friend of M. Poincaré. He had been a prominent member of the Paris Bar.

— **George William Foote** was the founder of the "Freethinker." In 1888

Mr. Foote was tried at the Central Criminal Court for blasphemy in his writings and sentenced to imprisonment.

18. **Sir Peter Walker**, the eldest son of Sir Andrew Barclay Walker, first baronet, was born in 1854. In his younger days he was a noted big game shot. He married in 1899 the daughter of Mr. H. C. Okeover, and is succeeded by his son, born in 1902.

19. **Sir Edward Archibald Hamilton, Bart.**, late Captain, Coldstream Guards, was born in 1842 and educated at Eton. He was a governor of St. George's Hospital and a member of the Zoological Society. He married Mary Elizabeth, daughter of Mr. Joseph Gill, and is succeeded by his eldest son.

— **Colonel T. E. Vickers, C.B.**, born in 1833, was the son of Edward Vickers, a partner in a steel firm at Millsand, Sheffield. He was educated at the Sheffield Collegiate School and Neuwied, on the Rhine. He then went into the business at Millsand and interested himself in the manufacturing side; in 1854 he succeeded to the practical manufacturing control of the establishment. His many inventions and original systems all proved so successful that in 1866 a new works was started under the name of the River Don works. Since this time great developments had taken place in connexion with heavy forgings, gun-making, armour manufacture and shipbuilding; so that before 1909 when Colonel Vickers retired, the firm had become one of the greatest and best known in the world. Colonel Vickers served as Master to the Cutlers' Company of Hallamshire in 1872-73 and gave his services to several committees concerning war material. He was awarded the Howard quinquennial prize by the Institution of Civil Engineers. He was much interested in the Volunteer movement and became Colonel of the battalion known as the Hallamshire Rifles. In 1898 he was made a C.B. for his military services.

— **Alfred Hyman Louis**, who was once a notable figure in literary London, died in Marylebone Infirmary at the age of 86. He was the son of a well-to-do Jewish man of business, and was called to the Bar by Lincoln's Inn in 1855. He had been a familiar visitor at George Eliot's Sunday afternoon at-homes and is among the correspondents in J. S. Mill's collected "Letters."

— **Lieutenant-General Sir Henry Moore, K.C.B., C.I.E.**, was born in

1829 and entered the Bombay Army in 1850. He saw much active service, and during the Mutiny was present at the capture of Bede Shonpoor and in the action of Chota Oodeypore; for his work he was mentioned in dispatches. He served again in the Abyssinian Expedition of 1867 and in 1871-72 he commanded a coolie corps in the Looshai Expedition. In the Afghan War of 1878-9 Sir Henry was appointed Assistant Quartermaster-General to the Quetta Field Force. The last campaign in which Sir Henry was engaged was the Egyptian Expedition of 1882.

22. Sir Andrew Noble was born in 1831 and educated at Edinburgh Academy, and after passing through the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, entered the Royal Artillery in 1849 and in 1855 he attained the rank of Captain. In 1858 he was appointed secretary to the Committee on Rifled Cannon and in 1859 to that on Plates and Guns. In 1859 he was appointed Assistant Inspector of Artillery and was employed at the Woolwich Arsenal. In 1860 he was made an associate member of the Ordnance Select Committee and also a member of the Committee on Explosives. In this year Sir William Armstrong prevailed upon him to leave the public service and take up a position at Elswick; he at first directed the ordnance department, but he soon received an interest in the business and in its later development he took an important share. He was constantly experimenting and investigating and twice lectured at the Royal Institution on his work. In 1881 for his services to the science of gunnery he was made a C.B., a K.C.B. in 1893, and in 1902 he was made a baronet. He was well known abroad and was a member of many foreign orders. In 1870 he became a Fellow of the Royal Society and ten years later received a gold medal from that body in recognition of his researches on explosives. In 1906 a collection of his papers was published under the title "Artillery and Explosives."

23. Dr. Richard Assheton, Sc.D., F.R.S., was born in 1864 and educated at Eton and Trinity, Cambridge. He had been Lecturer in Animal Embryology at Cambridge since 1911.

— **Charles Thomas Bruce** was the eldest son of the late Hon. Thomas Bruce and grandson of the seventh Earl of Elgin. He contracted enteric fever while on duty as commandant of a field hospital in Flanders.

— **Sir Henry John Stedman Cotton**, the son of a Madras Civil

Servant, was born in India in 1845. He began life in the Indian Government, and after serving in Bengal for five years he went to Calcutta as Assistant Secretary to the Bengal Government. Afterwards he became Home Secretary to the Government of India, and from that post he was selected for the Chief Commissionership of Assam. His sympathies with Indian "Nationalism" were well known, and when he left Assam in 1902 he received a vast number of addresses of gratitude from his Indian admirers. In 1906 Sir Henry at the General Election won Nottingham East by a large majority and attached himself to the advanced Radical wing. He became the leader of the section which pushed Indian questions to the front. In 1910 he lost his seat and did not again seek election to the House of Commons.

23. Dr. William Gilbert Grace was born in 1848 and began his cricket career at the age of 17. It was in 1865 when he played his first match for Gentlemen and Players at Lords, and he played this great match without a break until 1899. During this period of 35 years he played no fewer than 1,252 innings and scored 49,309 runs with an average of nearly 86 runs per innings, while as a bowler he secured 2,611 wickets at an average of 23 runs per wicket. He was the world's greatest cricketer and had played cricket for 48 years and would have been chosen as one of a representative eleven of England up to his 50th year.

— **Francis Compton** was born in 1824, and passed from Merton College, Oxford, to All Souls, where he was elected Vinerian Scholar in 1847 and Fellow on the old foundation ten years later. He was called to the Bar in early life and went circuit for some years. He at one time represented the New Forest Division as a Conservative member of the House of Commons.

— **Baron von Waagenheim** was the German Ambassador to Turkey and had only recently returned to the Turkish capital when he died after a short illness.

24. Brigadier-General the Hon. John Frederick Hepburn-Stuart-Forbes-Trefusis, D.S.O., was the son of Lord Clinton, born in 1878. He entered the Army in 1901, obtaining a commission in the Irish Guards. He became captain in 1909 and from that year until 1913 was adjutant. In December, 1914, he was gazetted temporary lieutenant-colonel of the Irish

Guards and in February of 1915 was awarded the D.S.O. He was killed in action.

25. **Lady Edith Lowry-Corry** was born in 1878 and was the sixth daughter of the late Lord Belmore. She was found drowned in one of the lakes in the family demesne of Castlecoole, near Enniskillen.

— **Robert Christison** was the son of the Rev. Alexander Christison, born in 1837. He went to Victoria when a boy of 15, and eventually founded with Sir Richard Cotton the first meat export works in Queensland.

— **Paul Hervieu** was born in 1857 at Neuilly (Seine). He was an eminent French Academician, and was best known as a writer of plays. He also wrote many clever novels.

— **Madame Masurus Pasha** died in Switzerland. She was the widow of a former Turkish Ambassador in London and daughter of Sir John Antoniadis, K.C.M.G.

28. **Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton** was born in 1837, the eldest son of Sir Edward North Buxton, and succeeded his father as third baronet in 1858. He was educated at Harrow and Trinity College, Cambridge, and entered Parliament as member for King's Lynn in 1865, but his Parliamentary career lasted only until 1868. He was for many years an active member of the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society and was elected its President in 1899. He was also very interested in the Volunteer movement. In 1895 he was appointed Governor of South Australia and held that office until 1898. In 1899 he was created a G.C.M.G. in recognition of his services in the Commonwealth. He married in 1862 Lady Victoria Noel, daughter of the first Earl of Gainsborough, and there were five sons and five daughters of the marriage.

— **Major-General William John Chads, C.B.**, was born in 1830. He was educated at Marlborough and entered the Army in 1847. He served in the Burmese War of 1852-3 and was three times mentioned in dispatches, and received the brevet of major. In the Russian War of 1854 he served with the Baltic Expedition. From 1876 to 1881 he commanded the 62nd (Wilts) Regiment, and after being employed in Egypt in 1882 he commanded the West Kent Regimental District until 1887; in that year he was made a C.B. In 1909

he was appointed colonel of the Border Regiment.

29. **Rev. Stuart Alexander Donaldson, D.D.**, Master of Magdalene College, Cambridge, was born in Sidney, N.S.W., in 1854. His father was a member of the Council of New South Wales and its first Minister and Colonial Secretary. Stuart Donaldson was educated at Eton and Trinity College, Cambridge, of which he was a scholar. In 1877 he was appointed to an assistant mastership at Eton and in due course was given a house. In 1904 he became Master of Magdalene and in 1909 he proceeded D.D. Dr. Donaldson married in 1900 Lady Albinia Hobart-Hampden, sister of the Earl of Buckinghamshire, and by her leaves two daughters and a son.

30. **Sir Charles Tupper** was born in Nova Scotia in 1821. His family were of English origin but had been settled in America since 1760. In 1857 he became Provincial Secretary in the Conservative Government of Nova Scotia. In 1859 this Government was defeated in a General Election, but in 1863 his party came back and he again held the same office until 1864, when he became Prime Minister. In 1870 Sir Charles Tupper first took office in the Dominion Government as President of the Council. From 1874 to 1878, while the Liberal Government was in power, Tupper was the chief critic of the Budgets of Sir Richard Cartwright and of the general policy of the Public Works Department. In 1876, 1877 and 1878 the Conservative leaders carried on a campaign in favour of Protection and in 1878 Sir John Macdonald came back to power in the House of Commons. In this new administration Sir Charles Tupper was Minister of Public Works, and his first great task was to proceed with the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway. The entire road was completed in 1886. In 1883 he withdrew from the Government in order to become High Commissioner for Canada in Great Britain. This office he held until the end of 1895. In 1887 he returned to Canada for the General Election and the Conservatives triumphed. Sir Charles took office in the Government as Minister of Finance. He then returned to London as High Commissioner, which office he had never formally resigned. In 1895 a serious controversy had arisen over the status of Roman Catholic schools in Manitoba and an appeal was made to him to assist in the reorganisation of the Cabinet. He arrived at Ottawa at the end of 1895, was sworn as Secretary of State in January,

1896, was returned for Cape Breton, and at once assumed the leadership of the House of Commons. He endeavoured to force the Remedial Bill through the House, but the opposition under Mr. Laurier obstructed the measure and the Bill had to be abandoned. At the close of the session Tupper became Prime Minister and the reorganised Cabinet was sworn into office on May 1, 1896. In the electoral contest which followed the Government was defeated. He led the Conservative opposition from 1896 to 1900. In the election of 1900 he lost his seat for Cape Breton and shortly afterwards resigned the leadership of the Conservative party and withdrew from public life.

30. Reginald Earle Welby (Lord Welby), the youngest son of the Rev. J. E. Welby, and grandson of Sir William Earle Welby, first baronet, was born in 1832. He was educated at Eton and Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1856 he accepted a Treasury clerkship which was offered to him and he speedily made his mark. In 1859 he became Private Secretary to the Financial Secretary and in 1871 Principal Clerk in the Financial Depart-

ment. It was from this time that his close personal and official relations with Mr. Gladstone began. He then became successively Assistant Financial Secretary, Auditor of the Civil List, and finally in 1885 Permanent Secretary to the Treasury. From about 1871 until his resignation in 1894 it was said of him that he was the guiding spirit of British finance. In 1874 he was made a C.B., in 1882 a K.C.B., and in 1892 a G.C.B., and on his retirement from office it fell to Mr. Gladstone to recommend him for a peerage. On his retirement he became an Alderman of the London County Council, and in 1898 was elected Vice-Chairman and in 1899 Chairman of that body. In 1895 he joined the board of the Grand Trunk of Canada Railway and was an original director of the Grand Trunk Pacific. He was also a director of the Standard Bank of South Africa. In 1914 he was elected President of the Royal Statistical Society. Lord Welby never married.

31. Dowager Marchioness of Bath, the eldest daughter of the third Viscount de Vesci, was born in 1840. She married in 1861 the fourth Marquess of Bath, who died in 1896.

NOVEMBER.

1. The Rev. Nehemiah Curnock, the son of a Wesleyan Methodist minister, was born in 1840. He served as minister in Huddersfield and Penzance, but subsequently returned to the duties of a circuit minister. In 1886 he became editor of *The Methodist Recorder* and held that post for twenty years. After he retired from journalistic work he gave all his attention to his authoritative edition of "Wesley's Journal," which work brought him well-deserved fame.

— **Herman Ridder**, editor of the *Staats-Zeitung*, died of Bright's disease.

— **Sir Arthur Rucker, F.R.S.**, was born in 1848. He was educated at Clapham Grammar School and Brasenose College, Oxford, where he became Junior University Mathematical Scholar in 1869. He was elected to a Fellowship of his college. In 1874 he became Professor of Mathematics and Physics at the Yorkshire College, Leeds. In 1885 he was adopted as Liberal candidate for North Leeds, but was beaten; in the following year he unsuccessfully contested the Pudsey Division of Yorkshire as a Liberal Unionist. In 1886 he was appointed Professor of Physics at the Royal College of Science, a position which he retained until 1901. In 1899

he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society, and from 1896 to 1901 acted as one of the secretaries of the society. In 1890 he was made a Fellow of the University of London and in 1901 he became its Principal, a position which he retained until 1908 when he retired at the age of sixty. Sir Arthur Rucker was awarded a Royal Medal of the Royal Society in 1891. He was President of the British Association in 1901. He was knighted in 1902. He published many important works.

1. Lewis Waller, the son of a civil engineer, was born in 1860. He was one of the most popular actors of his time. His first engagement was with Toole in 1883. He played in modern plays as well as in Shakespeare, but his most famous part was the King in *Henry V.*

— **Auguste Laval**, President of the Chamber of Deputies in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, died in a nursing home. He was 73 years old.

2. Sir Charles William Atholl Oakeley was born in 1828. He succeeded his father as fourth baronet in 1845.

3. Sir Edwin Hamer was born in 1838. He began his working career as a

child in a printing works at Bury and he rose to be one of the leading auctioneers in Lancashire and acquired great interests in cotton, iron, and paper industries. He was knighted in 1914.

3. **Sir Robert Laidlaw, F.R.G.S.**, was born in 1856, and sat as Liberal M.P. for East Renfrewshire from 1906 to 1910. He was largely interested in business enterprises in the East. He spent twenty-one years in India. In 1909 he was British representative at the International Opium Commission at Shanghai and in recognition of his work he was knighted in the same year.

5. **Miss Isabel Swinburne** was the youngest sister of the poet Algernon Charles Swinburne, and the last surviving member of the family.

— **Sir Phirozeshad Merwanji Mehta, K.C.I.E.**, was the son of a Bombay merchant, born in 1845. He was educated at Elphinstone College and was the first Parsi M.A. of Bombay University. He afterwards came to London where he read at Lincoln's Inn and was the first member of his race to be called to the Bar. He was one of the founders of the Indian National Congress and he presided at the Calcutta session of 1890. He was knighted in 1904 and was recently appointed Vice-Chancellor of Bombay University.

7. **Miss Bertha Jex-Blake, M.B. Edin.**, the daughter of the late Dr. T. W. Jex-Blake, formerly Dean of Wells, was born in 1868. She was accidentally drowned.

8. **William Cornwallis Cartwright** was the eldest son of Sir Thomas Cartwright, and born in 1825. He travelled much, and spoke French, Italian and German perfectly and had an excellent knowledge of the literature and history of those countries. In 1868 his influence was much felt at Oxford and he was chosen as "minority" candidate in the Liberal interest and was returned without a contest. He quickly obtained a position of some authority on foreign politics from his peculiar knowledge both of languages and leading men. At one time Mr. Gladstone was on the point of offering Cartwright the Under-Secretaryship for Foreign Affairs. He later became a consistent Unionist.

— **P. A. B. Widener** was born in 1834; he started life as a butcher, and accumulated a fortune estimated at between 15,000,000*l.* and 25,000,000*l.* He owned one of the choicest collections of ancient and modern pictures in America,

which he largely obtained from English sources.

9. **William Farrer Ecroyd** was born in 1827 and was educated privately and in the Quaker tradition. He subsequently joined the Church of England. He was the earliest pioneer of an organised movement of opposition to the policy of Free Trade. He attempted to enter Parliament three times, and at his last attempt at a by-election at Preston in 1881 he defeated his opponent.

— **Edward Smith Willard** was born in 1853. He was not quite seventeen when he made his first appearance on the stage. He was a very capable and impressive actor, and although he played many parts the melodramatic villain was his chief rôle.

11. **Henry Lawrence Cripps**, the eldest son of Mr. Henry William Cripps, Q.C., was born in 1846 and was a scholar at Winchester where he was Prefect of Hall, and of New College, Oxford. He was admitted a solicitor in 1871. He was an authority on Private Bill Legislation.

— **Father David Fleming** was born in 1851. He was a well-known and influential member of the Franciscan Order. He was an intimate friend of Cardinal Manning.

— **Lieutenant-Colonel John Duncan Bertie Fulton, C.B., R.F.A.**, was born in 1876. He was Assistant Director of Aeronautics and was one of the pioneers of military aviators in this country.

12. **Sir Patrick Playfair, C.I.E.**, was born in 1853 and educated at Loretto and Glasgow University. He is best known as the organiser at the close of 1899 of the first body of British Volunteers from India, known as Lumsden's Horse.

13. **James Ogilvie Grant** was born in 1876 and succeeded his father as the eleventh Earl of Seafield in 1898. He married in 1898 Mary, elder daughter of Dr. Joseph Townend of Christchurch, New Zealand. He died of wounds while serving as captain in the 5th Cameron Highlanders on the Western front.

15. **Booker Washington** was born a slave about fifty-six years ago. His mother was a negress and his father a white man or octoroon. He was the pioneer of education for the negro race; and the head of the Tuskegee Institute in Central Alabama.

16. **Professor Raphael Meldola** was born in 1849. In 1885 he became Professor of Chemistry in Finsbury Technical College, and he was one of the few chemists of this country who had practical experience in the manufacture of coal-tar colours. Outside chemistry he had an interest in biological questions. In 1886 he became a Fellow of the Royal Society and in 1913 was awarded its Davy Medal. In 1910 he was Herbert Spencer Lecturer at Oxford University, from which he received the honorary degree of D.Sc.

— **Sir James Stewart Davy** was born in 1848 and educated at Uppingham School and at Balliol. From 1905 to 1913 he was Assistant Secretary and Chief Inspector of the Local Government Board.

17. **Dr. Henry Charlton Bastian** was born at Truro in 1837, and was educated at University College, London, where he afterwards became Professor of Pathological Anatomy and Professor of the Principles and Practice of Medicine. He was also a consulting physician to the National Hospital for the Paralysed and Epileptic and to University College Hospital. He was a Fellow of the Royal Society. His publications were various, but his most renowned work was "The Beginnings of Life." Dr. Bastian was the last member of that great scientific school which numbered Darwin, Huxley and Pasteur among its members. All his life he fought for his great idea—that life is a form of energy which is capable of arising spontaneously. When he first published his views in 1870 he had Huxley and Tyndall against him and later Pasteur was drawn into controversy with him. Science accepted the views of Pasteur and rejected those of Bastian. In spite of this, with splendid courage and independence he continued his researches right to the end of his long life. He achieved notable work and the world has much to thank him for.

— **Theodor Leschetizsky** was born in Poland in 1830. In his younger years he enjoyed a European reputation as a solo pianist; but the most important work of his life was the foundation of the famous Leschetizsky School of Pianists in Vienna in 1878. Paderewski came to him as a pupil in 1884 and later Mark Hambourg.

20. **Sir Allen William Young, C.B., C.V.O.**, was born in 1830 and at the age of sixteen entered the mercantile marine. He was one of the last of the very few survivors of the Franklin search

expeditions of fifty years ago. He served under McClintock as Master of the *Fox* and it was due to their zeal that the first tangible information of the fate of Franklin and his men was found. In 1860 Young aided McClintock in the Atlantic Cable survey. In 1875, during the Nares Arctic Expedition, he took his steam yacht the *Pandora* up Baffins Bay and was able to communicate with the expedition. One of his most important services in later years was the rescue in the *Hope* of the Leigh-Smith Expedition to Franz Joseph Land. In 1877 he was knighted. Sir Allen was a younger Brother of Trinity House and one of the youngest members of the Royal Yacht Squadron.

23. **Major the Hon. Sir Schomberg McDonnell, G.C.V.O., K.C.B.**, was born in 1861, the fifth son of the tenth Earl of Antrim. He was educated at Eton and Oxford and in 1888 became principal private secretary to Lord Salisbury. A fortnight before his death he resigned his post as Chief Intelligence Officer to the London District Command and went to the front to serve with the 5th Cameron Highlanders. He received a scalp wound in Flanders and died shortly afterwards.

— **Sam Woods**, the Labour Leader, was born at Wigan in 1846. He was the son of a miner and worked in the mines from the age of seven until he reached manhood. He was elected to the House of Commons as Liberal-Labour M.P. for the Ince division of Lancashire in 1892, but was defeated in the 1895 election. He sat for Walthamstow from 1897 to 1900. He was for many years secretary of the Trades Union Congress.

25. **Sir William Russell, Bart.**, was born in 1865, the only son of the late Lieutenant-General Sir William Russell, whom he succeeded as third baronet in 1892.

27. **Charlton James Wollaston** was born in 1820, and was a nephew of the famous chemist and physicist Dr. W. H. Wollaston. He was the pioneer of submarine telegraphy.

28. **Lord Massy** was born in 1835, the second son of the fourth baron, and succeeded his elder brother as sixth baron in 1874. Lord Massy married in 1863 Lady Lucy Maria Butler, daughter of the third Earl of Carrick. He is succeeded by his son.

— **Senator Sarrien**, a French ex-Premier, died of cerebral hæmorrhage.

DECEMBER.

1. **Right Hon. Sir Spencer Cecil Brabazon Ponsonby-Fane, G.C.B., I.S.O.**, the sixth son of the fourth Earl of Bessborough, was born in 1824. In 1840 he entered the Foreign Office and six years later went to Washington as *Attaché*, returning to England in 1847. In 1851 he was Private Secretary to Lord Granville and afterwards to Lord Clarendon from 1853 to 1857. It was at this time that he began his long career as Gentleman Usher to Queen Victoria and Comptroller of Accounts in the Lord Chamberlain's Department. He resigned his post as Comptroller shortly after Queen Victoria's death, but still continued as Gentleman Usher to King Edward and King George, and was one of the most familiar figures to be seen at Court. He was appointed a Knight Grand Cross of the Bath at the Jubilee of 1897, and in 1904 was made honorary Bath King at Arms. He was also a member of the Privy Council and received the Imperial Service Order. In 1847 he married the Hon. Louisa Anne Rose, the third daughter of the thirteenth Viscount Dillon.

— **Zachary Merton**, who was of the Jewish race, was born in 1843. By his death London charities have lost a great benefactor. He founded an institution for the training of poor boys to a trade after they left the elementary school; he also subscribed largely to the Evening Play Centres, and was a most generous supporter of the Charity Organisation Society.

6. **Sir George Francis Coventry Pocock** was born in 1830, the eldest son of the second baronet. He succeeded his father in 1866.

— **Thomas Parker** was born in 1843. He was educated at a Quakers' School and went to work at an early age. He was one of the pioneers of electrical railways in England. In 1894 he was awarded the Stephenson medal and Telford Premium by the Institution of Civil Engineers. In 1892 he unsuccessfully contested the Kingswinford Division of Staffordshire.

7. **Lord Armistead** was the son of Mr. George Armistead, a merchant, born in 1824. He was educated partly in Germany. He afterwards became the head of a large business in Dundee. At the general election of 1868 he was returned as one of the members for that town; he retired in 1873, but stood again successfully in 1880, and retained the

seat until 1885. He sat as an advanced Liberal and was a keen admirer and warm supporter of Mr. Gladstone; and afterwards became one of his most intimate friends. Lord Armistead received his barony in 1906.

9. **Lord Ellenborough**, Commander, R.N. (retired), born in 1841, was the grandson of the first baron, the famous Lord Chief Justice during the later years of George III. He was educated at Charterhouse and entered the Navy at an early age. From 1857 to 1860 he was midshipman on the *Highflyer* on the China Station. He became a sub-lieutenant in 1860 and a lieutenant in 1861, and in 1867 he passed as an interpreter in French. He retired from the service as commander in October, 1873. He married in 1906, Hermione, daughter of the late E. W. H. Schenley of the Rifle Brigade.

— **Stephen Phillips**, the son of Stephen Phillips, D.D., Precentor and Hon. Canon of Peterborough, was born in 1864. He was educated at the Grammar School of Stratford-upon-Avon and at Oundle School, and was intended for the Civil Service; but instead he went on the stage, joining the company of his cousin, Mr. F. R. Benson. As an actor he had only fair success. Mr. Phillips wrote a little poetry in boyhood; in 1890 he published a few poems, in 1894 came "*Erebus*," and in 1896 "*Christ in Hades*," which first brought him into notice. In 1897 he won the 100*l.* prize given for the best poetry of the year by the *Academy*. A few years later he produced his poetical drama, "*Paola and Francesca*," which was at once a great success. Very soon afterwards came "*Herod*" and "*Ulysses*," and in 1904 the "*Sin of David*," and "*Nero*" in 1906.

12. **William Nevill, first Marquess and fifth Earl of Abergavenny** was born in 1826, and succeeded his father as fifth Earl in 1868. He never sought a seat in the House of Commons, but local politics interested him keenly and he had great influence in the inner councils of the Conservative party. He was one of the chief founders of the Junior Carlton and Constitutional Clubs and acted as chairman of the former until a few years before his death. For a long period he was chairman of the National Union of Conservative Associations. He was a staunch friend of Lord Beaconsfield and it was on Lord Beaconsfield's recommendation that Queen Victoria in

1876 made him a marquess and ten years later he received the Garter. Lord Abergavenny married in 1848 the eldest daughter of the late Sir John Vanden-Bempole-Johnstone, M.P., and had five sons and three daughters.

13. **The Earl of Glasgow** was born in 1833, the eldest son of Mr. Patrick Boyle (great-grandson of the second earl). He entered the Navy and served in the Crimean War on board the *Eurydice* and also served in the China War of 1857. He retired from the Navy with the rank of captain. He succeeded to the earldom and other Scottish honours of his cousin, the sixth earl, on the latter's death in 1890, and seven years later was created Baron Fairlie of Fairlie in the peerage of the United Kingdom. In 1892 Lord Glasgow was appointed Governor of New Zealand and remained in office until 1897. He was president of the Institution of Naval Architects for seven years, resigning in 1908. He married in 1873 the eldest daughter of Sir Edward Hunter Blair, baronet, and had five sons and three daughters.

15. **Lord Alverstone** (Richard Everard Webster) was born in 1842, the second son of Thomas Webster, Q.C. He was educated at Charterhouse and Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1868 he was called to the Bar by Lincoln's Inn, of which his father was a bencher; and in 1878 he took silk. In 1885 he entered Parliament as member for Launceston. The Redistribution Act, however, extinguished Launceston as a Parliamentary borough, and he contested the Isle of Wight, where he defeated Mr. Evelyn Ashley. He was made Attorney-General immediately on entering the House of Commons, and represented the Isle of Wight for fifteen years without interruption. He rendered great service as counsel in international questions both under a Unionist and under a Liberal Government. In May 1900 on the retirement of Sir Nathaniel Lindley the Attorney-General was appointed Master of the Rolls. He only held this office a few months. Lord Russell of Killowen died and Lord Alverstone, as he was created in June, became Lord Chief Justice of England in October. On the occasion of his retirement he was created a viscount. He married in 1872 a daughter of Mr. William Calthorp.

16. **Earl de la Warr** was born in 1869, the second son of the late earl. He succeeded to the title on the death of his father in 1896, his elder brother having died six years earlier. He was educated at Charterhouse. He is suc-

ceeded by his only son who was born in 1900.

16. **Sir John Rhys** was born in 1840 in Cardiganshire. He was the son of a yeoman farmer and was educated first at the Penelwyn British School and then at the Normal College, Bangor. In 1865 he went up to Jesus College, Oxford, speaking and writing English as a foreign language. He also studied abroad. In 1877 he was elected the first Professor of the newly-founded Chair of Celtic at Oxford University. In 1881 he became a Fellow of Jesus College, and in 1895 he was elected Principal. In 1886 he was Hibbert Lecturer, Rhind Lecturer in Archæology at Edinburgh in 1899, and President of the Anthropological section of the British Association in 1900. His contributions to Celtic research and science were very considerable.

17. **Albert Stanley, M.P.**, was the Labour member for North-West Staffordshire since 1907. He began his working life in a coal-pit, but later in 1890 he became secretary of the Midland Miners' Federation.

— **Édouard Vaillant** was born in 1839 and was one of the few remaining founders of French Socialism. He was a disciple of Blanqui, with whom he fought through the Commune.

18. **Earl of Roden** was born in 1844, the younger son of Captain the Hon. John Jocelyn (fifth son of the second earl) and succeeded his brother as the seventh earl in 1910. He married in 1882 the daughter of Colonel S. G. Jenyns, C.B., by whom he had a son and two daughters.

— **Right Hon. Sir Henry Enfield Roscoe, F.R.S.**, was born in 1832. In 1852 he went to Heidelberg and became a pupil and assistant of Bunsen; and when he returned and settled at Manchester it may be said of him that he was instrumental with Schorlemmer in creating a school of chemistry. It was in 1857 that he was appointed Professor of Chemistry in Owens College, Manchester, and he remained there for thirty years. In 1885 Roscoe was elected Liberal Member for South Manchester; he was re-elected in 1886 and again in 1892, but in 1895 he was defeated as a Liberal Unionist and his political work then ended. During this period he was often called upon by the Government as scientific adviser, and he rendered great service as a member of Royal Commissions and Committees. In 1863 he was elected F.R.S. and was awarded

a Royal Medal by the Royal Society for his protochemical researches and his work on vanadium in 1873. He married in 1863 Lucy, daughter of Mr. Edmund Potter, F.R.S.

21. Bouchier Francis Hawkesley was born in 1851, the son of Canon Hawkesley. He was articled to a solicitor at first in Bristol in 1866, but coming to London in 1872 entered the famous firm of Hollams, and in 1896 he became a partner. He is best known perhaps as solicitor to the British South Africa Company and also as friend and legal adviser of Mr. Cecil Rhodes.

— **Miss Violet Florence Martin** (Martin Ross) was the youngest daughter of the late Mr. James Martin, D.L., and granddaughter of a former Chief Justice of Ireland. She was educated at Alexandra College, Dublin. She was joint author with her cousin of "Some Experiences of an Irish R.M." and other sketches of Irish life. These books have become famous and are classics in their own delightfully humorous way.

22. Arthur Hughes was born in 1832 and was the last of the pre-Raphaelite painters. In 1846 he entered the school of design at Somerset House, and his first master was Alfred Stevens; at the end of the year he was admitted to the Royal Academy Schools. Here he met Millais and Holman Hunt. When he was seventeen his first picture, "Musidora," was hung in the Academy. He worked with great industry, contributing for thirty years at least one or two pictures to the Royal Academy, and later also to the Grosvenor and New Galleries. His pictures are well known. He took part with Rossetti, Morris and Burne-Jones in the mural decorations—which have now perished—and of the Union Society's Hall at Oxford.

— **Right Hon. Sir Joshua Strange Williams** was born in 1837 and was educated at Harrow and Trinity College, Cambridge. He entered as a law student at Lincoln's Inn and was called to the Bar there in 1859. In 1861 he went out to New Zealand and practised there as a barrister and solicitor. In 1875 he was appointed a Judge of the Supreme Court of New Zealand, and went to Dunedin where he remained until he resigned his Judgeship in 1914. He was knighted in 1911 and in 1913 he was appointed a member of the Privy Council.

23. Earl of Cranbrook (Gathorne Gathorne-Hardy) was the eldest son of the second earl, whom he succeeded in

1911. He was born in 1870, and educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford. He was a deputy lieutenant and magistrate for Kent; and from 1899 to 1906 held a commission in the army. In 1899 he married Lady Dorothy Montague Boyle, youngest daughter of the seventh Earl of Glasgow, and had four sons and a daughter.

25. Samuel Whitbread was born in 1830. His father was Samuel Charles Whitbread, M.P. for Middlesex, 1820-30. Mr. Whitbread represented Bedford as a Liberal in the House of Commons from 1852 to 1895, an uninterrupted term of forty-three years. From 1867 he was associated with the brewery which was founded by his great-grandfather in 1756 and bears his name, and in 1889 he became chairman of the company into which the business was formed. He was a man of great modesty and all through his life he declined all suggestions of office or honour.

26. Arthur Dukinfield Darbishire, died of cerebro-spinal meningitis at Kilmarnock. He was a scientific worker and thinker of rare ability, and his book, "Breeding and the Mendelian Discovery," made him famous. He was Lecturer on Genetics at Edinburgh University.

— **Professor Heinrich Debus, Ph.D., F.R.S.**, the son of the late Valentine Debus, was born in 1824 in Hessen. On coming to this country in 1851 he obtained the position of Lecturer on Chemistry at Queenwood College, Stockbridge. He worked there until 1867 when he was appointed to a similar position at Clifton College. In 1870 he left Clifton and went to Guy's Hospital where he remained eighteen years as Lecturer on Chemistry. He contributed many articles to scientific journals, and his eminence as a scientific teacher secured for him the honour of election as a fellow of the Royal Society and membership of the Athenæum.

29. Andrew Clunies-Ross was one of a family which has been established in the Keeling Cocos Islands for many years as rulers of a group. Andrew was not in the direct line of rulers, his brother George Clunies-Ross, who died in 1910, had a son who is believed to have succeeded him in the headship. Andrew spent his life on the islands and may have been recognised as King *de facto*; this privileged position was granted to the head of the family by the British Crown.

— **John Harris**, the President of the Newfoundland Legislative Council,

died at St. John's, Newfoundland, at the age of fifty-seven.

30. **Mrs. Emily Crawford** was born in 1832. She was Paris correspondent of the *Daily News* for twenty-two years from 1885 to 1907. She was one of the best known foreign correspondents of the second half of last century. She was a great friend of Meredith and Thackeray.

31. **Commendatore Tommaso Salvini** was the son of an actor and was born at Milan in 1829. He was famous as an actor in every country in Europe. His first visit to London was in 1863 but he did not stay long. In 1875 he was invited to play for three nights a week at Drury Lane and his fame was established. His playing of the part of Othello was a great triumph. Hamlet, Macbeth and King Lear he also included in his repertory. He retired in 1884 and lived in Florence.

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